

Some Problems  
of  
Translation:  
A Linguistic Comparison  
of  
Texts in English and Hindi  
by

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### Preface

The aim of this thesis is to study problems of translation in linguistic terms - that is, within the framework of linguistic theory. The theory underlying this study is the scale-and-category theory, which is most fully presented in M.A.K. Halliday's "Categories of the Theory of Grammar", Word, vol. 17, pp.241-292. It is assumed that the reader will have some knowledge of this work, and thus it has not been considered necessary to present a detailed statement of the underlying theory.

The study falls into three parts. Part I, which consists of the first chapter, presents translation in its proper perspective. It is claimed that translation, being an operation upon languages, comes under the scope of linguistics and can only be studied scientifically if regarded as such. The chapter also deals with some of the theoretical problems concerning an application of linguistic theory to problems of translation.

Part II, which consists of five chapters (2-6), presents grammatical descriptions of English and Hindi on the one hand and analyses of texts in the two languages on the other beginning from the sentence down to the group rank. Each of these chapters has been divided into three sections. For instance, chapter 2 is as follows:

- 2.1. The sentence in English
- 2.2. The sentence in Hindi
- 2.3. Comparisons: the sentence

The descriptions of English and Hindi in the first and the second sections are of course not exhaustive but are presented



mainly for the purpose of their application to the texts in the third section. This method has been followed in all the five chapters of Part II.

Part III, consisting of the last chapter, is in the nature of concluding remarks dealing with some of the main points arising out of the present study as well as some general points concerning translation and language comparison. Although the present work is based on texts the aim is not only to study the texts listed below but also to show by examples the validity of an application of linguistic method to problems of translation and language comparison in general.

The texts selected for the study are the following:-

1. Daphne du Maurier: Rebecca (Penguin books, 1963)
2. C.E.M. Joad: Introduction to Modern Political Thought (The Clarendon Press, Oxford, 1937)

Their translations in Hindi are -

3. Shanti Bhatnagar (translator): Rebecca (Sasta Sahitya Mandal, New Delhi, 1961)
4. Amba Datta Pant (translator): Adhunik Rajnitik Siddhant-Praveshika (Oxford University Press, India, 1957)

Page references accompanying quotations are to these texts; EN and EP refer to the first and second (respectively) of the two English texts, HN and HP to the translations of them. Hindi examples have been given in a form of transliteration following mainly Firth's phonetic system of spelling designed as part of an All-India system of romantic orthography (Cf. J.R. Firth's Introduction to A.H. Harley's Colloquial

Hindustani)

Professor J.C. Catford, Director, English Language Institute, University of Michigan, (formerly Director, School of Applied Linguistics, University of Edinburgh) supervised my work in the first year of study. I wish to express my sincere gratitude to him for his guidance and help during that period. I am deeply indebted to Mr. D. Macaulay for many helpful discussions and suggestions. Not least I am grateful to him for his kindness and interest throughout. I am also grateful to Mr. S.P. Corder and other members of the staff of the Department of Applied Linguistics for their help in many ways. I have profited by discussing several problems with Mr. J.M. Anderson, Dr. R.D. Huddleston and Dr. S.K. Verma. My thanks are due to them.

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Finally, although I have benefited much from discussions with and suggestions from my teachers and friends the final responsibility for this work rests with me and me alone.

## SYMBOLS

///	Sentence boundary
//	Clause boundary
/	Group boundary
// //	Boundary of rankshifted clause
[ ]	Symbol for included elements such as P [ S ] i.e. S included in P

### Changes from Firth's symbols for transcriptions

i	for Firth's	y
i:	for Firth's	i
u	for Firth's	w
u:	for Firth's	u

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PART I

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0. Translation as an activity:

Translation has often been taken to include two (sometimes three) kinds of activity. A representative opinion, from this point of view, may be that of Roman Jakobson:

"... it may be translated in other signs of the same language, into another language, or into nonverbal symbols."<sup>1</sup>

These three activities, according to him, are three kinds of translation:<sup>2</sup>

- i) Intralingual translation
- ii) Interlingual translation
- iii) Intersemiotic translation

These are different activities and their study would need different treatments. The "similarity", if any, between them is rather trivial and would be more misleading than illuminating if taken as a basis for their study. The requirements for those performing these operations are different in each case; the same person may not be able to perform all these three activities. In a scientific study of translation it would not be possible to operate with a concept which includes all these as the same activity. It is necessary, therefore, to delimit translation as an activity.

In the present study translation is taken to be as an interlingual activity. It is an operation on two languages - a "source language" and a "target language". Translation, as a process, is always performed in a given direction: from a



source language into a target language. Throughout this study the source language will be symbolized as Lx and the target language as Ly. A text (Tx) in the source language (Lx) is translated as a text (Ty) in the target language (Ly).

### 1.1. Translation as a branch of General Linguistics:

Translation from one language to another has been common for centuries and, quite rightly, is recognized as "an activity of enormous importance".<sup>3</sup> But the usual attitude to translation has been unhelpful. It may be summed up as follows:

- i) Translation is a creative, rather a "re-creative process."<sup>4</sup>
- ii) Translation is impossible

These two attitudes (or rather these two aspects of the same attitude) have dominated the literature of translation throughout the centuries. Indeed, occasionally, one hears even a denial of the very existence of translation.<sup>5</sup>

This denial of translation represents an extreme point of view and is certainly not very helpful to a study of translation. Translation exists and as an activity will continue in future. To quote Firth, "There is no point in denying the concept of translation. The fact is, translation is a necessity on economic and general human grounds."<sup>6</sup> Indeed this increasing importance of translation is one of the main reasons for interest and research in the field of machine

translation. But interests in machine translation should not lead us to a neglect of problems of human translation.<sup>7</sup>

There is no denying "the creative aspect" of translation. But this is true not only of translation but of many linguistic activities - perhaps, to some extent, of all linguistic activities. The difference may be a matter of degree. It is unhelpful, therefore, to reject translation on this ground as not amenable to a scientific treatment. This is not to suggest that the creative aspect of translation should be ignored in its study. What is emphasized here is that translation, like other linguistic activities, is a subject of scientific investigations. As Nida says, "... the processes of translation are amenable to rigorous scientific description."<sup>8</sup> Just as a linguistic study of creative writing, commonly called stylistics, has its special problems so also a linguistic study of translation may have its own special problems.

Translation, then, is an operation on languages. Such a field of study cannot but be included in General Linguistics which is the scientific study of language and provides categories for application in its various branches. The principles and techniques of general linguistics can be applied not only to define and delimit the area and scope of translation but also to determine the extent to which it can scientifically be handled and beyond which untranslatability may occur. In other words the problem of impossibility of translation can best be dealt with in terms of general linguistic principles. The rigour that Nida thinks of is possible only when translation is

studied in its proper perspective: that is, translation as a branch of General Linguistics. There are, however, two specific branches of General Linguistics (Comparative Linguistics and Applied Linguistics) to which translation is particularly related.

1.1.1. Comparative Linguistics and Translation:

Translation, in some form, is not uncommon as a linguistic technique or tool. Generally it is used for two purposes: as "an aid to linguistic analysis" and as a method of comparative statement. Nowadays translation as a basis for (or even as an aid to) linguistic analysis is viewed with suspicion and has also been regarded as "the foundation of error."<sup>9</sup> Firth issues a note of warning against any attempt "of building bridges between two different languages by means of naked ideas."<sup>10</sup> However, for comparative purposes between two languages the criterion for identification of comparable items (or terms in a grammatical system) is usually either their mutual translatability or their translatability into "some common language."<sup>11</sup> Even this use of translation is not always strongly advocated though often made.<sup>12</sup>

Without going much into the details of the nature of comparative linguistics it can reasonably be assumed that comparative linguistics involves the study of two (or more) languages. Translation, by definition, is an activity between



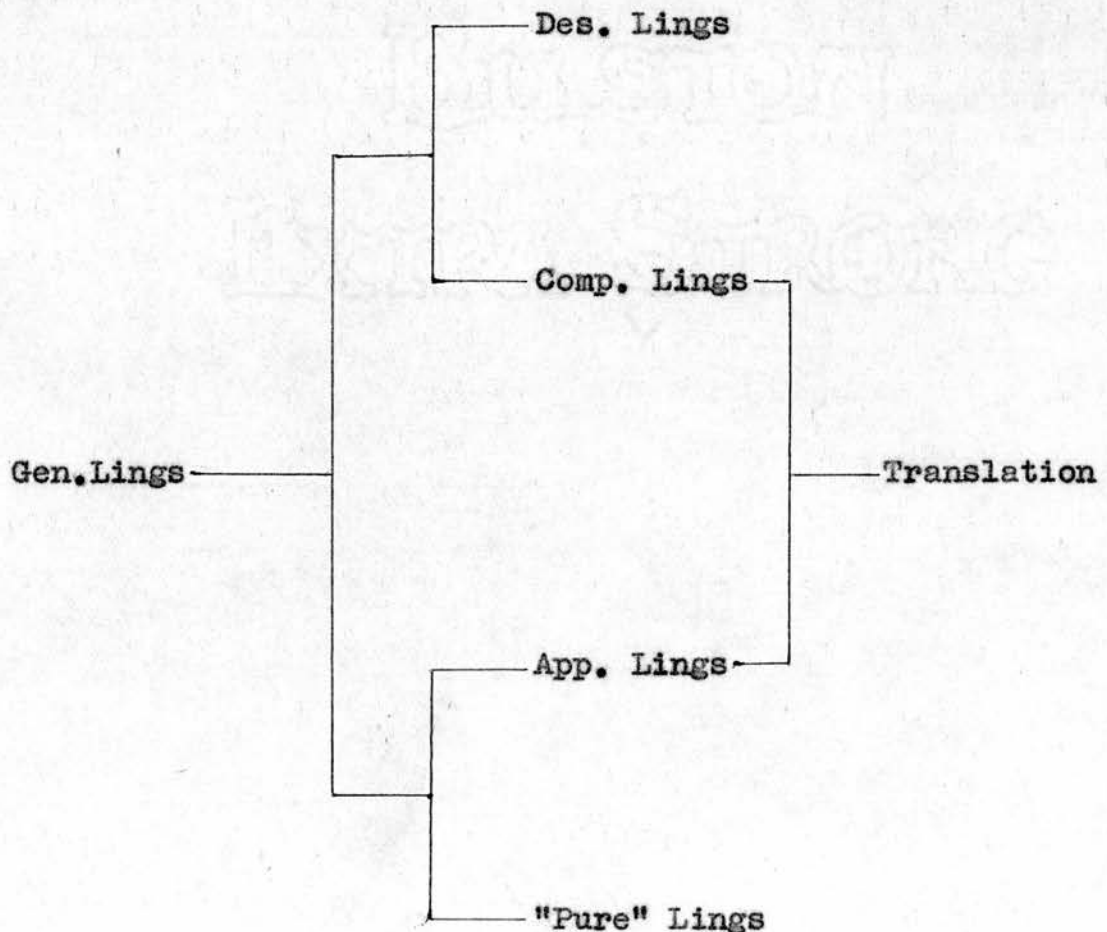
(or an operation on) two languages. There is thus a relation between the two - comparative linguistics and translation. The use of translation as a technique in linguistic analysis may be undesirable or even misleading but its relevance to comparative linguistics cannot be ignored. Indeed, the two go a long way together. Consequently, the work done in one may be helpful to the other.

1.1.2. Translation: an Applied Linguistics:

The field of applied linguistics is generally considered (particularly in America) to cover only problems of language teaching. Undoubtedly, problems of language teaching are very important problems in applied linguistics. But there is no reason why applied linguistics should be restricted to language teaching only; any application of linguistic theory can rightly claim a place in applied linguistics. Translation (including machine translation) is one such field where descriptions of languages are used for a specific purpose.<sup>13</sup> Other branches of applied linguistics like the study of bilingualism and language-contact are particularly relevant to a study of translation. The activity of a translator may well be looked upon as a particular instance of bilingualism and language-contact. They are inter-related.

Most of the studies on translation have lacked a theoretical foundation and have been largely concerned with

the experiences and commonsense judgments of translators. Valuable though they are in some ways, they are no substitute for a theory (of translation.) Nor do they invalidate a claim for a theoretical study. A theoretical study of translation must draw on a linguistic theory and the study of special problems of translation, in turn, may be relevant to linguistics in general and applied linguistics in particular. If linguistics is divided into descriptive and comparative on the one hand and "pure" and applied on the other the relation of translation to these branches may be diagrammatized as follows:



(For the sake of simplicity other branches of comparative linguistics and applied linguistics have been ignored.)



## 1.2. Linguistic Theory:

" ... any theory of translation must draw upon a theory of language - a general linguistic theory."<sup>14</sup> In contemporary linguistics no theory of language can claim to be the theory of language. Linguists within different "schools" work with different "models". No attempt is made here to claim superiority of one to the other. Suffice it to say that different models have different aims and advantages and the choice of one rather than the other may depend on the purpose for which it is used and also the nature of research one embarks upon. To quote Halliday, " ... different coexisting models in linguistics may best be regarded as appropriate to different aims, rather than as competing contenders for the same goal."<sup>15</sup>

For the purpose of this thesis the theory of language developed by Halliday<sup>16</sup> has been used as a basis. In a textual study it has certain advantages over others. Texts can be studied and compared, quite comprehensively, at different levels and ranks. The advantages are both from the point of view of intralingual study and interlingual study. For instance as intralingual comparison of texts may display features relevant to registers. Given the descriptions of the two languages under comparison - and comparison, in our view, pre-supposes description - texts in those languages can be studied and compared at whatever rank and to whatever degree of delicacy we choose depending on the purpose and scope of the work.

In a study of translation textual comparisons are of great help and importance. Translations exist and provide "a certain kind of evidence." Linguists would hardly gain anything (and perhaps would lose much) by ignoring this evidence. In Chapters 2-6. we present both intralingual and interlingual comparisons of texts in English and Hindi on the level of grammar at three ranks - the sentence, the clause and the group.

### 1.3. Meaning in Translation:

The central problem in translation is the problem of meaning. For this reason translation has often been defined (and also judged) with reference to meaning. A translation Ty of Tx is said to have "the same meaning" as Tx. "The problem in effecting translation", according to Dostert, "is to achieve a transference of the meaning contained in the source symbol system into the target symbol system."<sup>17</sup> Nida also looks upon translation as "the transference of a message from one language to another"<sup>18</sup> and falls back on the concept of language as a code:

"Fundamentally, a code consists of symbols organized into a system. Language, which is precisely such a code, consists of words (or other units) which are organized, according to "the rules of the grammar", into particular types of combinations."<sup>19</sup>

The parallelism between language and code is rather superficial; it does not take us very far. Even if the dichotomy of "form" and "content" in language, which is what Nida means, is accepted the similarity between form and content on the one hand and the code and the message on the other is maintained only up to a point. The message and the code are two distinct entities; they are separable and exist independently of each other. They do not mutually determine each other; the code may be determined by the message but not vice versa. Form and content in language on the other hand are not separable in the sense in which the message and the code are. That is, they do not have any independent existence. The relation between them is that of mutual determination; one determines the other. However attractive and also tenable from the standpoint of communication engineering this view of language as a code may be from the linguistic standpoint it is, as Halliday says, "both questionable and unhelpful."<sup>20</sup>

If a translation is expected to have "the same meaning" as the original it is not surprising that we end up with such statement that "translation is impossible." This attitude to translation, in our view, is theoretically unsound and most unhelpful from the practical point of view since it leads to a blind alley. Following Halliday the meaning of an item is taken to be its operation in the network of relations, which are of two kinds - formal and contextual. These networks of formal and contextual relations in different languages are ipso facto not the same. Consequently,  $T_x$  and  $T_y$ , given that  $T_y$  is



a translation-equivalent of Tx, do not mean "the same thing." Indeed they cannot.<sup>21</sup>

What we look for in translation is not "the sameness of meaning" but an equivalence of meaning. However, there are two things to be noted in this connection. Firstly, this equivalence of meaning operates on a more-or-less basis. When the degree of equivalence is very high Ty may give an impression, for all practical purposes, of having "the same meaning" as Tx. This is precisely what happens in a "good" translation. Secondly, this equivalence (as well as the degree of equivalence) is determined by the relationship of the texts (Tx and Ty) to contexts. Both these points will be elaborated further at relevant places in the sections below.

#### 1.4. Translation in relation to levels:

"For translation the important levels are form, namely grammar and lexis, and that of context."<sup>22</sup> In the theory of language presented by Halliday situation and context are recognized as two levels. The distinction between situation and context is relevant to translation since the latter is bound to a language whereas the former is not.

1.4.1. Translation with reference to situation:

The customary arguments to support the proposition that there are no "real" translations seem to depend on the assumption that a translation established in one situation must be a translation in all situations. That is to say, if the item a in L<sub>x</sub> is translated as the item b in L<sub>y</sub> in a particular situation the common assumption is that it must be so in all situations where a can occur. Since this requirement cannot usually be met the idea of translation is taken to be false.

The point of view adopted here is that translation is not an absolute or permanent relationship. Translation is bound to a situation. If the item a in L<sub>x</sub> can be replaced by the item b in L<sub>y</sub> in a given situation b is taken to be a translation-equivalent of a irrespective of whether b can or cannot replace a in other situations. The translatability of a as b is determined with reference to a given situation. In other words the statement that "b is a translation-equivalent of a" means, in our view, that b can replace a at least in one situation. A few illustrations from English and Hindi may be given.

The item brother-in-law is translated as sala when it refers to wife's brother and as behnoi when it refers to sister's husband. Similarly the item you is translated as ap if, for instance, the son is speaking to the father and as tum the father is speaking to the son. Thus it is a given situation which determines the translation of brother-in-law



as sala or bəhnoi and of you as ap or tum.

Let us take another example from English, Hindi and Bengali:

English	Hindi	Bengali
smoke	pina	khava
drink		
eat	khana	

Where there are three items (smoke, drink and eat) in English there are only two (pina and khana) in Hindi and only one (khava) in Bengali. It may, therefore, appear that smoke in English has no equivalent either in Hindi or in Bengali. But this is based on the assumption that translation-equivalent exists independently of any situation. In our opinion it does not. In a given situation, that is in a particular occurrence of smoke, pina in Hindi and khava in Bengali would be "perfect" translation-equivalents of smoke. That is, they will be "playing an identical part in an identical situation."<sup>23</sup> In another situation pina in Hindi (or khava in Bengali) may well be "perfect" translation-equivalents of drink. Thus the translation of an item (or a text) is determined by the situation where it operates. As a corollary to this, there may be several "good" translations of one text depending on several situations where it may operate.

1.4.2. Situation and Context:

Language activity operates in a situation. That is to say, it is not a level of a language. What is taken as relevant to a language, however, is "context", a level for description. The selection of relevant features from situation makes up the context of a language. Since different languages do not select the same features from situation the contexts of different languages are not the same. Situation may perhaps be regarded as "the fund" for contexts to draw on.

The context of a language and the context of a text in that language need to be distinguished. Let CLx and CLy denote the contexts of Lx and Ly respectively and let CTx and CTy denote the contexts of Tx and Ty respectively. The features of CTx and CTy are those features of CLx and CLy which are relevant to Tx and Ty. Not all features of the context of a language are relevant to the context of a given text in that language. But all features of the context of a given text in a language are drawn from the context of that language. This relation between CLx and CTy on the one hand and CLy and CTy on the other may be represented as

$$CLx : CTx :: CLy : CTy$$

There is no adequate description on the level of context even for a language as well-described as English and there is practically nothing for Hindi. The difficulties involved in a description on the level of context are many. However, a distinction between the context of a language and that of a text in that language may be useful and is emphasized here because of

its relevance to problems of contextualization in translation, discussed below.

1.4.2.1. Contextualization:

Any text, then, functions in a context: that is, its form displays a relation to certain "extratextual" features of situation. The assignment of CTx and CTy to Tx and Ty respectively is based on the fact that both Tx and Ty are texts in Lx and Ly. The fact that Ty is a translation-equivalent of Tx is ignored at this point. This relation of Tx to CTx on the one hand and Ty to CTy on the other may diagrammatically be shown as:

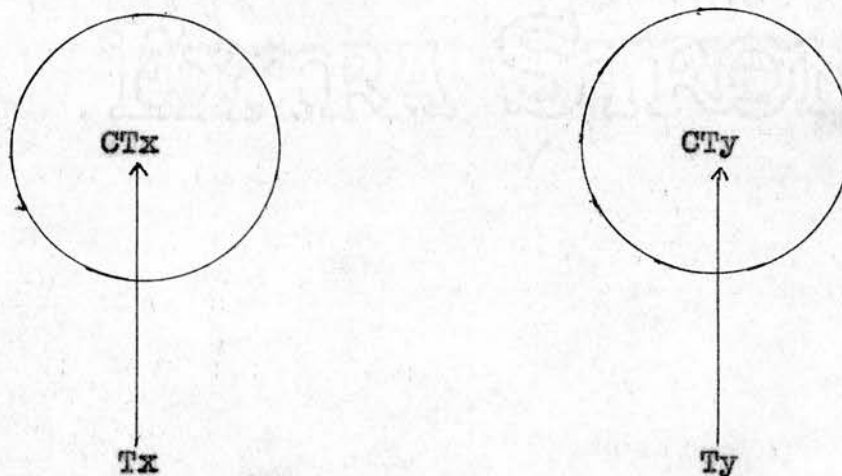


Fig. 1.

It may be mentioned here that the problem of delimiting the context of a text is very complicated and the difficulties involved in it are many. But for the purpose of the present



discussion it is assumed that the contexts of Tx and Ty have been delimited.

The basis of translation is contextual meaning; that is, it is contextual meaning which determines whether Ty is a translation-equivalent of Tx or not. In translation contextual meaning has precedence over formal meaning. Given that Ty is a translation-equivalent of Tx there is a certain degree of equivalence between the contextual meaning of Tx and that of Ty. This is what translation implies. Furthermore, a certain degree of equivalence between the contextual meaning of Tx and Ty implies that Ty must be relatable to some features of CTx. Fig. 1 may be modified as -

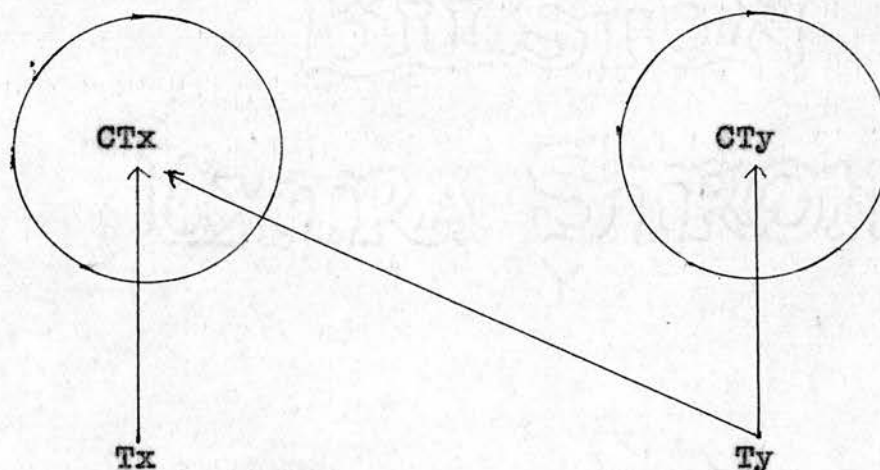


Fig. 2.

On the other hand Tx cannot be said to have any such relation to CTy since Ty is a translation-equivalent of Tx and not vice versa.

At this point it may be useful to clarify the stand

taken in regard to the direction of translation. As an activity it faces only one way: that is, from the source language (Lx) to the target language (Ly). It may well be that once translated the two texts (Tx and Ty) may perhaps be regarded as translations "of each other."<sup>24</sup> But in a study of translation this direction is important and is relevant both to the levels of form and context. (Its relevance to form is discussed below.) Since the direction of translation is from Lx to Ly Tx exists prior to and is independent of Ty.<sup>25</sup> Consequently, Tx has no relation whatsoever to CTy.

Thus CTy can be said to function in "two contexts", CTx and CTy. That is to say, there are some common features in both CTx and CTy to which Ty is related. These common features between CTx and CTy may be shown as -

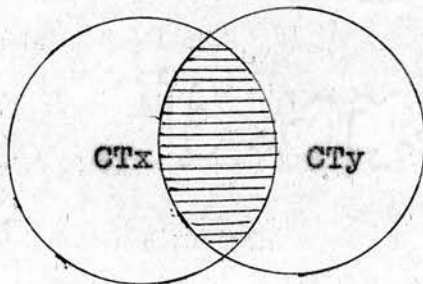


Fig. 3.

This common area (or segment) between CTx and CTy, shown in Fig. 3, determines the equivalence of contextual meaning between Tx and Ty; or to put it differently Tx and Ty presuppose a certain common area between CTx and CTy. In other words if Tx and Ty are contextualized certain features will be found common to their contexts.

As said earlier the relation of equivalence operates on a more-or-less basis. "The sameness of meaning", so often



looked for in translation, will be an instance where the two circles (in Fig. 3) coincide. Ideally, perhaps, this is what a translator aspires for.

Let us now take a few examples to illustrate these points.

(1) I went to London last week

(2) mēy pichle septah lēden गया

(2) is a translation-equivalent of (1). If we contextualize (1) some of the main features are

(a) the speaker

(b) the event of going to London

(c) the event took place in the past

A contextualization of (2) also displays these features. In other words (a), (b) and (c) are common to the contexts of both (1) and (2). These common features are implied in the fact that (2) is a translation-equivalent of (1). Let us now take the following Hindi sentence -

(3) mēy egle septah lēden jañga

(I will go to London next week)

Let us accept for the sake of discussion that (3) is also a translation-equivalent of (1). If we contextualize (3) some of the main features are -

(d) the speaker

(e) the event of going to London

(f) the event will take place in future

Thus we find that there are two features (d) and (e) which are common to the contexts of (1) and (3) but there are three features

which are common to the contexts of (1) and (2). Hence (3) is to be rejected in favour of (2).

To sum up there are three main points. Firstly, Tx and Ty must have some common features in their contexts. Secondly, the degree of equivalence of contextual meaning is proportionate to the number of common features; equivalence increases as the number of common features increases. Thirdly, translations may be ranged on a scale from "bad" to "good" according to the degree of equivalence. Any two texts in different languages may be regarded as translations of each other given that there is at least one feature common to their contexts. Any random selection of two texts in different languages will in all probability be bad translations. For instance, (1) and (3) are bad translations of each other in spite of the fact that there are two features common to their contexts.

It may appear that Ty would be an "ideal" translation if all contextual features of Ty are the same as those of Tx. But this possibility is, at least in most cases, unlikely. Let us consider it with reference to certain examples. (2) is a "good" translation-equivalent of (1) but all contextual features between them are not the same. (1) does not indicate the sex of the speaker but (2) does. Indeed, while translating (1) into Hindi an indication of the sex of the speaker cannot be avoided.<sup>26</sup> The sex of the speaker though present in the situation is not linguistically relevant to (1) but is linguistically relevant to (2). One more example may be

given to illustrate the point.

(4) Will you come to-morrow?

(5) kya { tum } kəɪ { aoge }?  
          { ap }       { aʒge }

(5) is a translation-equivalent of (4). But in (5) the choice, indicated by braces, indicates a relation between the speaker and the addressee: that is, whether the speaker has a "higher" or "lower" status than the addressee. This relation is not indicated by (4). Thus both Hindi texts (2) and (5) indicate certain features which are not present in the English texts (1) and (4).

It may also happen that some features might get "lost" in translations. For instance, different contextual meanings of can and may are not distinguishable in Hindi.

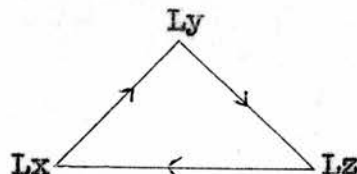
(6) you can go now

(7) you may go now

(8) tum əb ja sakte ho

There is of course a considerable overlap of meaning between (6) and (7) but, as Palmer says, (7) is "a little more formal."<sup>27</sup> But both (6) and (7) are translated as (8). Thus the feature of "formality", present in (7), gets "lost" in its translation-equivalent (8).

To illustrate and expand the point further let us take three languages Lx, Ly and Lz where the direction of translation is from Lx to Ly, from Ly to Lz and finally from Lz to Lx. Diagrammatically,





Let Ty be a translation-equivalent of Tx, Tz of Ty and Tx' of Tz. That is,



The point to consider is the relation between Tx and Tx'. Since Tx' is a translation-equivalent of Tz, Tx' is unlikely to be the same as Tx though there may be some equivalence between the two. Whatever relation Tx' may have to Tx is only indirect - via Tz and Ty.<sup>28</sup>

In a textual study of translation such as the present, given that one text is a translation of another, it must be assumed that there is a common area between the contexts of the two texts. We do not deny or even minimize the difficulties involved in delimiting the context of any text. Nor do we imply that the contexts have been delimited. What is assumed, however, is some common ground between the two contexts.

Starting from this assumption we go to the level of form and study the texts at that level. The present study is only at the level of grammar. The information provided by a comparative description of the texts at the level of grammar and an underlying equivalence of contextual meaning between them can then be related (as far as they can be related.)

#### 1.4.3. Form and Translation:

The levels of grammar and lexis, also called demi-levels,<sup>29</sup> together constitute the level of form. The present

study is at the level of grammar and therefore the following discussion is confined mainly to problems of grammar in relation to translation.

1.4.3.1. Transfer grammar:

One usual method to a study of grammar for a pair of languages has been what is usually called "transfer grammar". Harris advocated its usefulness not only for comparison but also for translation including machine translation:

"The method is also relevant to a proceduralized system of translation, and indeed can be put in the form of routine instructions for machine translation; and this not only because of the inherent connection between transfer and translation but also because sentence-pairs under translation are used in certain transfer foundations."<sup>30</sup>

In short, transfer grammar seeks to describe one language in terms of the categories set up for another language.

The method seems useful for purposes of language teaching. If L2 (the second language or the foreign language) is described in terms of the categories of L1 (the first language or the native language) some of the difficulties in the acquisition of L2 may, to some extent, be minimized.<sup>31</sup> The method of transfer grammar may appear tempting from the point of view of translation as well; it may appear to simplify the process of translation, even the mechanization of translation. This, in fact, is the main argument of Harris.



But in spite of these apparent advantages there are basic objections to this method - both on theoretical grounds and on descriptive considerations. Let us first discuss it from the point of view of description.

It is true that similar features in two (or more) languages can be described fairly satisfactorily by the method of transfer grammar. For instance, both English and Hindi display five units (sentence, clause, group, word and morpheme); they have three group classes (nominal group, verbal group and adverbial group); they have a word class "noun" operating at h in nominal group structure and so on.<sup>32</sup> They are sufficiently alike to be put under the same categories and may also be defined, to some extent, in terms of one language: for instance, the definition of the nominal group in English (that it operates at S/C) is also applicable to the nominal group in Hindi. But there may be difficulties at later stages in delicacy. For instance, the nominal group in Hindi is marked by postpositions and those postpositions differ depending on whether the nominal group operates at subject or object. Following transfer grammar these "facts" will either have to be ignored or distorted if Hindi is described in terms of the categories set up for English.

Not all features in languages are common or similar. Where languages do not display similar features the transference of categories from one language to another becomes far less justifiable. Indeed this is what characterizes traditional grammar; categories of Latin transferred to English

and other languages. For instance, the distinction between the nominative case and the objective case in nouns may have relevance to Latin but has no relevance to modern English. Traditional grammars of English, however, maintain this distinction.<sup>33</sup> In other words categories of one language are made universal categories with no real justification.

Theoretically a language is "a system by itself". Each system is to be handled independently. This is not to deny similarities among languages but what is objected is the transference of one system to another. Such an attempt has very often (and perhaps inevitably) led to non-linguistic and notional definitions of categories. For instance, the traditional definitions of "noun", "verb", "subject" etc. are all couched in notional terms. These definitions are operationally inadequate and are therefore rejected. "The "transference" of grammatical categories", to quote Halliday, "is a dead horse no longer to be flogged."<sup>34</sup>

#### 1.4.3.2. The Scale-and-Category Model:

The theory underlying the descriptions of English and Hindi, as presented here, is now commonly known as the scale-and-category model.<sup>35</sup> Both descriptions are within the framework of the same model. Though within the same theory the two descriptions are basically independent of each other and they stand on their own. One is not described in terms of the other.

However, it is important to bear in mind the purpose(s) for which a description is to be used. For a particular description may not be equally suitable for different purposes. For instance, a description suitable for language teaching may not be suitable to the same degree for, say, machine translation. From this point of view certain modifications may be helpful.

The main purpose in the present study is to investigate problems of translation from English to Hindi. The two descriptions have been used for this purpose and they have been presented with an eye to this. As Firth said, descriptions may be "keyed to the translation."<sup>36</sup> This practical consideration is not to be taken as a "violation" of the principle of autonomous description. What is suggested here is this: given a number of possibilities the one more suitable from the point of view of translation has been accepted.

One rather fundamental question in a comparative study arises out of the use of the same names and labels for descriptive categories in two (or more) languages. For instance, names like "the independent clause", "the affirmative clause", "the nominal group", "subject" and symbols like " $\wedge$ ", " $\beta$ ", "m", "d", "e", "n" have been used in the descriptions of both languages. They are descriptive categories and are defined with reference to other categories of the language under description. It may be argued then that the use of the same labels and names is theoretically unjustified and may also be misleading.



It is true that as descriptive categories they are bound to the language under description. The main reason for retaining the same names and labels is their mutual translatability. That is, the majority of what are called  $\surd$ -clauses in English are translated as  $\surd$ -clauses in Hindi; the majority of what are called clauses in English are translated as clauses in Hindi too and so on. Robins brings this point with reference to "noun" and "verb":

"... When two formally differentiated word-classes are established in any language as the basis of its grammatical system, a large proportion, at least, of the words in these two classes can be translated into the noun and verb, respectively, or nominal and verbal phrases, of the analyst's language."<sup>37</sup>

It is important to remember that the use of the same names and labels by no means implies that their definitions are also the same. The system of mood<sup>38</sup> may be taken as a case in point. The terms (affirmative, interrogative and imperative) in English are defined according to the arrangement of S and P but in Hindi they are defined according to certain restrictions on the elements of clause structure. (The affirmative clause is defined negatively: that which is neither imperative nor interrogative.) There is, however, a large proportion of mutual translatability.

In a comparative study the use of the same names has certain advantages particularly in referring to statistical details and for this reason, as far as possible, the same names have been used both in English and Hindi. But in separate



descriptions of English and Hindi it may be desirable to change certain names. One such instance is "the additioning clause."<sup>39</sup> Additioning clauses in English and Hindi differ in their positions relative to independent clauses: the English additioning clause cannot precede the independent clause but in Hindi the additioning clause can. In a description of Hindi it may be desirable to have a different name for it - say "relative". Even in the present study where the same name would be misleading a different name has been used; for instance, "complement" in English and "object" in Hindi.<sup>40</sup> The object in Hindi is very considerably different from the complement in English in relation to other elements of clause structure. For this reason a difference in name is worth maintaining.

It is, as Palmer says, "customary in linguistics to use notionally informative labels for formally defined categories."<sup>41</sup> The point is also relevant to comparison. In retaining the same label for categories in two languages contextual meaning is given precedence over formal meaning; they are supposed to have a certain degree of equivalent contextual meaning. They are ad hoc in formal terms though justified by their contextual correlates.

1.4.3.2.1. Translation-relations:

The relation between the source language and the target language can be said to operate along two dimensions: between categories and between items. It would be convenient if these two are kept distinct. We propose to call the relation between categories as correspondence and that between items as equivalence. The following examples illustrate these two relations:

Correspondence:

- i) The clause in English corresponds to the clause in Hindi.
- ii) The interrogative clause in English corresponds to the interrogative clause in Hindi.
- iii) SPCA in English corresponds to SOAP in Hindi.

Equivalence:

- i) māy kēl gher jāūga is equivalent to I will go home tomorrow.
- ii) bēhoī is equivalent to brother-in-law
- iii) aur is equivalent to and

Correspondence, in fact, is formal correspondence - a relation at the level of form<sup>42</sup>; equivalence, on the other hand, is textual equivalence - a relation between two given texts one of which can be replaced by the other.

These two relations are, in a way, inter-related. Correspondence is established on the basis of a number of equivalents. For instance when we say that SPCA in English corresponds to SOAP in Hindi what is meant is this:

the majority of clauses having the structure S P C A in English are translated as clauses having the structure S O A P in Hindi. To take another instance: if the majority of sentences having the structure  $\alpha\beta$  in Lx are translated as sentences having the structure  $\beta\alpha$  in Ly the correspondence would then be between  $\alpha\beta$  in Lx and  $\beta\alpha$  in Ly in spite of the fact that  $\alpha\beta$  is a possible sentence structure in Ly. Thus equivalence can be said to be the main basis of correspondence.

But the need to separate the two arises from the fact that what has been called correspondence is at a higher degree of abstraction and represents a much more abstract relation than what has been called equivalence. Though correspondence is established mainly on the basis of equivalence some features from descriptions of the two languages (Lx and Ly) may also be relevant to it. For instance, it is true, as said above, that the majority of clauses having the structure S P C A in English are translated as clauses having the structure S O A P in Hindi but it is also true, on the basis of separate descriptions of the two languages, that S P C A and S O A P represent unmarked clause structures in the respective languages. That is to say, these two structures occupy more-or-less "similar places" in the descriptions of English and Hindi. To take another instance: the clause in English corresponds to the clause in Hindi mainly because most of the clauses in English are translated as clauses in Hindi too. But there is an additional point that the clause occupies a similar place in the hierarchy of units set up for the two languages. While establishing correspondence, therefore, facts from the descriptions of



the two languages are also relevant.

To expand the point further let us take the case of "Phase"<sup>43</sup> in English. There is no system of phase in Hindi or, to put it differently, we have not set up a system of phase at the clause rank in Hindi. Thus there is no correspondence. But there is equivalence in the sense that formal items which are exponents of clauses having multiple phase in English have their equivalents in Hindi. Hence in spite of equivalence there is no correspondence between "Phase" in English and any category in Hindi. To sum up, correspondence is established mainly on the basis of equivalents but features from the descriptions of the source language and the target language are also to be taken into account.

At this point it may be relevant to discuss problems of those categories which are exclusive either to the source language or to the target language - that is, categories having no correspondence. In this connection the direction of translation is important. In that case "effects" of such a category of the source language on the target language need to be investigated. A typical example would again be that of "Phase". Given clauses with multiple phase their translation-equivalents in Hindi need to be examined as to what features in the Hindi texts can be said to be due to "Phase" in English.

The situation, however, is different in case of categories which are exclusive to the target language. An example would be the system of "concord",<sup>44</sup> as set up at the clause rank in Hindi. There is no corresponding system in English. If the



study is from English to Hindi, as is the present one, "concord" in Hindi is not very relevant to problems of translation. For the selection of the Hindi clauses from the system of concord is not due to any feature in the English texts and may, perhaps, be regarded as independent of the English texts. If, on the other hand, the study is from Hindi to English its "effects" on the English texts need to be studied: that is, an investigation of features in the English texts due to "concord" in Hindi.<sup>45</sup>

1.4.3.2.1.1. Degrees and Conditions of Correspondence:

Correspondence is variable in degree and is best regarded as a cline where an instance of a one-to-one correspondence is a particular point on the scale. For instance, if all sentences in  $L_x$  are translated as sentences in  $L_y$  there is a one-to-one correspondence at the sentence rank given that the sentence has been set up as the highest unit in both languages. The degree of correspondence between the sentence or the clause in English and Hindi is very high but it is not so high in all categories. For instance, prepositional phrases<sup>46</sup> (in English) and nominal-head adverbial groups<sup>47</sup> (in Hindi) may be regarded as corresponding categories but the degree of correspondence between them is not so high.<sup>48</sup> Thus it seems helpful to regard correspondence as variable in degree.

Correspondence may also be restricted by certain conditions, which are related to (or determined by) features

of co-text.<sup>49</sup> That is to say, under certain conditions<sup>50</sup> there may be deviations from the usual correspondences. A simple sentence in English usually corresponds to a simple sentence in Hindi. That is to say, most of simple sentences in English are translated as simple sentences in Hindi too. But there are conditions under which it may not happen. If a simple sentence contains a reporting verb it may be translated as a compound sentence. Similarly there are conditions under which a minor clause may be translated as a major clause, an intransitive clause as a transitive clause, a non-finite verbal group as a finite verbal group and so on. Indeed, conditions of correspondence at different ranks and in different categories may be studied. (They have been dealt with at relevant places in this thesis.)

To sum up, correspondence, being a more abstract relation than equivalence, is of great importance in a (theoretical) study of translation.<sup>51</sup> But a study of correspondence is dependent on the descriptions of the source language and the target language on the one hand and a comparison of texts in the two languages on the other. The chapters that follow (2 - 6) bring these two together taking English as the source language and Hindi the target language.

### 1.5. Language-varieties in Translation:

"Effective action and good manners require appropriateness of language in situational context."<sup>52</sup> The same kind of language is not appropriate to different situations in society. This leads Firth to "the notion of restricted languages".<sup>53</sup> The concept has been developed further as language-varieties by British linguists. The concept of "a whole language," even if theoretically possible, is too vast and operationally unmanageable for practical purposes. For translation there is no need to justify the usefulness of the concept of language-varieties; translating a poem and translating a text-book of physics are quite distinct operations.

Language-varieties can be classified along two dimensions - according to users and according to use. "The variety according to user is a DIALECT; the variety according to use is a REGISTER."<sup>54</sup> Both dialect and register are relevant to a study of problems of translation. Dialect may be distinguished both in space and time: for instance, "Scots English" as against "English English" (a distinction in space) and "20th century English" as against "18th century English" (a distinction in time.) In the present study,<sup>55</sup> however, problems of dialect have not been investigated and therefore we confine ourselves to the other variety register.

"Registers ... differ primarily in form ... the crucial criteria of any given register are to be found in its grammar and its lexis."<sup>56</sup> That is, if A and B are texts in different registers they must be distinguishable at the level of form.



In some cases lexical features are quite obvious: technical terms in a scientific text-book, for instance. But grammatical features, though less obvious, are by no means insignificant.

Three dimensions are recognized as useful for a classification of registers: field of discourse, mode of discourse and style of discourse.<sup>57</sup> We shall discuss these dimensions mainly from the point of view of their relevance to translation.

The field of discourse is the subject-matter. We may broadly recognize registers of science, literature and politics etc. Within such broad categories we can make more delicate classification of registers like those of physics and zoology in science, of poetry and novel in literature. The field of discourse presents its own problems in translation. The "personal" element or the "creative" element is of supreme importance in a translation of literary texts. It is mainly this problem which has led people to believe in the impossibility of translation. The problem has, usually, been thought as almost insurmountable. There is no denying the extremely complicated nature of this problem in literary texts but it is a specific problem of literary texts. In scientific texts, on the other hand, it is neither so important nor so complicated.

The main problem in a scientific text is of a different nature and may be discussed with reference to English and Hindi. Hindi has not been used very much for purposes of science. Even those Indian scientists whose LI is Hindi usually speak



and write in English. A few scientific text-books, mostly adaptations from English, are available in Hindi but original works, research papers and articles are almost exclusively written in English. It can be said, therefore, that there is no scientific register in Hindi. This, in fact, is the main problem in translating a scientific text from English into Hindi. At the same time, translation is an important means of "creating", so to say, the scientific register in Hindi. Because of a lack of sufficient original scientific works in Hindi their translation into Hindi can be of considerable help in adapting Hindi to scientific purposes.

The mode of discourse is concerned with the medium - the spoken or the written. The extent to which this distinction brings variations at the level of form differs from language to language but there can be no doubt about the fact that it is worth taking into account. The present study is concerned with the written medium; all the texts are written ones.

"Style of discourse" refers to the relations among the participants. "Formal style" and "informal style" are two commonly made distinctions. Joos suggests what he calls "the five clocks"<sup>58</sup> for English:

frozen  
formal  
consultative  
casual  
intimate

Though it is convenient to bear these distinctions in mind they are not always very clearly distinct. Relatively speaking, they are far more distinct in English than in Hindi. If we

regard "formal" and "informal" as two broad categories they can be fairly distinguished in Hindi too but other distinctions between these two extremes are not very clear.

"It is as the product of these three dimensions of classification that we can best define and identify register ... The formal properties of any given language event will be those associated with the intersection of the appropriate field, mode and style."<sup>59</sup> Though these three dimensions are useful for classifying registers the criteria are not absolutely independent; they overlap and the degree of overlap increases as delicacy increases.<sup>60</sup>

From the point of view of translation, however, there is a theoretical problem of correspondence of registers in the source language and the target language. Given that registers in Lx and Ly have been classified they are represented by letters as follows:

Lx
A
B
C
D

Ly
a
b
c

(The number of registers in Lx and Ly may or may not be the same.) Clearly A, B, C, D and a, b, c, are classified with reference to respective languages, Lx and Ly. That is to say, the formal properties which define and identify A and B on the

one hand and a and b on the other are with reference to Lx and Ly respectively. In what sense, then, can it be said, for instance, A in Lx corresponds to a in Ly? There is, indeed, a parallelism between a term in a system and a register in a language; "meaning" in each case is relative to other terms or registers. Here again the main basis is translation. If translations of the majority of texts in A have formal properties similar to those of texts in a there is correspondence between A (in Lx) and a (in Ly.)

As in other categories so in register correspondence is variable in degree. Degrees of correspondence in registers result from degrees of correspondence in the three dimensions discussed above. If, for instance, a distinction between the spoken and the written does not make any variations at the level of form in Ly whereas it does in Lx it will have its effect on correspondence between registers in Lx and Ly.

Finally the concept of register also provides a framework to handle the limit of translatability. Different registers may have their own specific problems of translation. Consequently, the limit of translatability may not be the same. The problem of translating literary texts is a case in point. Indeed it seems unlikely that even when machine translation is a success the problem of translating literary texts by computer will be solved though, as Bar-Hillel says,<sup>61</sup> it may, to some extent, become easier in scientific texts.

**PART II**

**CHAPTER 2**

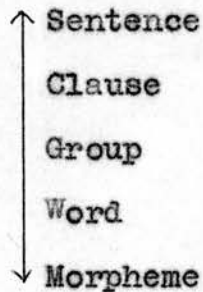
**THE SENTENCE**



## 2.1. The sentence in English

2.1.1. The rank scale:

For the description of English we follow Halliday in recognizing a rank scale of five units<sup>1</sup>:



The sentence is the highest unit and the morpheme the lowest. Although the sentence is regarded at this stage in description as the highest unit the possibility of a higher unit is not excluded. In fact, for some purposes, translation being one of them, it seems useful to have a unit higher than the sentence. And linguists have very often felt the necessity of such a unit<sup>2</sup>.

Whatever the number of the units (depending on the language under description) the relation between them is always the same: each unit consists of members of the unit next below; or to put it differently a unit operates in the structure of the unit next above. The sentence and the morpheme, however, have only a unidirectional relationship: the sentence, being the highest unit, does not operate in the structure of any other unit and the morpheme being the lowest does not consist of any other unit and therefore, by definition, has no structure.

2.1.1.1. Rankshift:

In addition to this usual relation among the units, by which each operates in the structure of the one above it, there is a feature of language structure called rankshift<sup>3</sup> which occurs when a unit operates in the structure of a unit either of its own rank or of a lower rank. The most frequent examples of rankshift in English are at the group rank: group rankshifted to group structure and clause rankshifted to group structure.

Examples:

(The relevant items are underlined)

group rankshifted to group structure:

Many writers on political theory have held ...  
(EP-10)

clause rankshifted to group structure:

The only excuse I can make is ...  
(EN-24)

At this point it would be relevant to discuss briefly the distinction between syntax and morphology. Traditionally these terms have been used for 'grammar above the word' (syntax) and 'grammar below the word' (morphology). Halliday has made a substantial departure from this distinction and built it into his theory. According to him syntax is "the downward relation, morphology the upward one; and both go all the way"<sup>4</sup>. Class is syntactical: that is, it is a grouping of items on the basis of their operation in the structure of the unit next above. The morphological category, called type<sup>5</sup> by Halliday, is a grouping of items which are alike in their own structure: that is, the way they are made up of the unit next

below. This distinction represents a higher degree of abstraction than the traditional distinction and is applicable to units at different ranks. The sentence and the morpheme, however, by definition, do not have (syntactical) classes and (morphological) types respectively.

It is fundamentally the morphology that determines the rank status of rankshifted items such as those underlined above.<sup>6</sup>

#### 2.1.2. Delimitation:

There is always a unit which makes 'the language work in situations: so it might as well always have the same name: "sentence".<sup>7</sup> But the choice of the same label by no means makes it a universal category with a universal definition. The sentence is a descriptive category and has to be defined separately for different languages.

"The sentence is the largest piece for which grammatical statements are made ... "<sup>8</sup> As a category in grammar it has to be defined with reference to grammar;<sup>9</sup> the distinction between level and rank has been considered necessary for the purpose.<sup>10</sup> However, a phonological (or graphological) signal may be taken as a descriptive convenience though by no means as a theoretical justification. In some cases, "squinting" at another level, as Halliday calls it, becomes almost unavoidable particularly when confronted with certain ambiguities in grammar.<sup>11</sup>

This process of squinting is far more justifiable in the case of the sentence. For this, in a sense, represents



the boundary of grammar: that is, beyond the sentence we cannot make any grammatical statement (until a higher unit is set up). Harris looks upon it from the point of view of its structure and also its intonation: "Sentences of particular types may be characterized as those segments of speech (or writing) over which certain intonations occur or within which certain structures occur. (A particular structure is a particular combination of classes of elements)"<sup>12</sup> Since the text under study is a written one intonation may be difficult to work with and so the orthographic signal has been accepted for the delimitation of the sentence.

A sentence is taken as that which begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop, or a question mark or an exclamation mark. However, there have been occasional deviations, as in the following for instance, from this criterion:

The Theory as Marx states it is as follows:

(EP-42)

What follows this colon is not only a number of orthographically marked sentences but also a new paragraph. It would be unhelpful not to consider the portion quoted as a sentence.<sup>13</sup> In such cases, therefore, the colon has been taken as a sentence boundary. Similarly chapter headings and section headings have been taken as instances of sentences. (Incidentally this problem has arisen only in the text-book of political science)

### 2.1.3. Contextual Types:

It is a commonplace to classify sentences as Statement, Question, Command, Request, Exclamation etc. Indeed, these, with many others, are possible contextual functions of the sentence. But such a classification is deficient mainly because it lacks a theoretical framework. Consequently, no limit can justifiably be set up to the number of such contextual classes. Any limit drawn will, in the last resort, be a point of arbitrary decision.

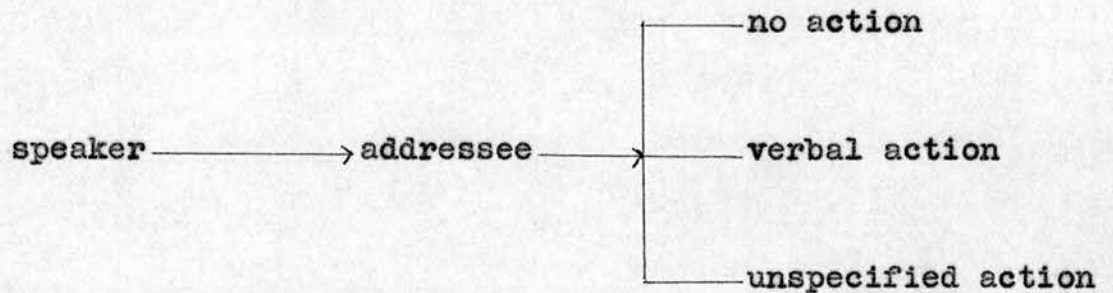
Firth's theory of "context of situation" may be taken as the starting point for the purpose. "The basic assumption of the theory of analysis by levels is that any text can be regarded as a constituent of a context of situation or of a series of such contexts ..."<sup>14</sup> He suggests the following constituents:

- A. The participants: persons, personalities and relevant features.
  - i) The verbal action of the participants.
  - ii) The non-verbal action of the participants.
- B. The relevant objects and non-verbal and non-personal events.
- C. The effect of the verbal action.<sup>15</sup>

Firth postulates these general categories as a means of making context of situation an abstraction to which language texts may be related and analysed at this level.

Within this general framework outlined by Firth situational components have been established for a contextual classification of sentences.<sup>16</sup> Sentences may be classified in terms of the implications they carry for the speaker (or the performer)

and the addressees (or the audience). There are three implications with reference to the speaker and the addressee:



These implications are taken as the basis of the following contextual types:

- Statement - no action
- Question - verbal action
- Command - unspecified action
- Response

Examples:

- Statement - They say that minstrel's gallery is a gem. (EN-18)
- Question - Haven't you any family? (EN-15)
- Command - Bring it down to me right away. (EN-15)
- Response - That little slim waist, those great big eyes (EN-17)

It needs to be emphasized that the relation to observables is not direct; it is the implications in the sentence that matter, not what actually happens. The roles of the speaker and the addressee are interchangeable. Provided the addressee confines himself to verbal responses as implied in the speaker's utterances or to appropriate non-verbal action, there is no role-change. As soon as he initiates sentences which imply



responses, then he is the performer.

#### 2.1.4. Structure:<sup>17</sup>

Sentences may be simple or compound. A simple sentence consists of one clause and a compound sentence more than one.

Examples:

Simple sentence: ///The lift stopped with a jerk///  
(EN-21)

Compound sentence: ///They say//he can't get over his wife's  
death/// (EN-14)

As Halliday says 'the "simple/compound" opposition is thus one of structure',<sup>18</sup> and consequently applicable to units at different ranks. For instance, a clause is simple if it consists of one group and a group is simple if it consists of one word. For a similar phenomenon Pike recognizes what he calls "portmanteau levels":

"...we must now postulate PORTMANTEAU LEVELS - two or more levels simultaneously manifested by a single morpheme or morpheme sequence ... The SENTENCE level may be portmanteau with that of clause: John came home is simultaneously clause and sentence."<sup>19</sup>

The symbols used for the primary elements of sentence structure are  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ . They are expounded by the clause classes independent and dependent respectively.  $\alpha$  is the pre-supposing element and  $\beta$  the pre-supposed one. Primary sentence structures then are represented by sequences of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ .



Examples;

- $\alpha$  We arrived at our floor  
(EN-21)
- $\alpha\alpha$  I knelt on the window-seat//and looked out upon the  
afternoon.  
(EN-21)
- $\alpha\beta$  The Absolutist theory of the state is derived from  
two rather different sources,//both of which appear  
for the first time in Greek thought.  
(EP-10)

An element may also be inside another:

- $\alpha[\beta]$  This freedom,//which became possible only in society,//  
is an externalization ...  
(EP-11)

Dependent clauses may contain items like if, because,  
when, called binders. But dependence is syntactic and not  
necessarily (morphologically) marked. For instance,

I knew//he did not want to lunch with me  
(EN-24)

The underlined clause which is an exponent of  $\beta$  in sentence  
structure does not contain any binder.

Most sentences contain at least one  $\alpha$ . But occasionally  
sentences have been recognized with structure  $\beta(...^n)$  only:

- $\beta$  That the satisfaction of the wants of all individuals  
is identical with the well-being of the community  
as a whole.

(EP-31)

- $\beta\beta$  When we climbed the hill// and looked down over the  
precipice.

(EN-41)

Simple sentences of this type are not very uncommon  
in conversation and compound sentences like the ones quoted

above occasionally occur.<sup>20</sup>

To sum up:

Simple sentences:  $\alpha$  or  $\beta$

Compound sentences:  $\alpha\alpha (...^n)$

$\beta\beta (...^n)$

$\cup \alpha (...^n) \beta (...^n)$

( $\cup$  indicates that there is no restriction in sequence)

#### 2.1.4.1. Depth:

"Language also exhibits a different kind of structure, the "recursive" or "depth-ordered" structure. Here, as the name implies, an element of structure, or a combination of elements, is repeated "in depth", a series of such elements (or combinations) thus forming a progression."<sup>21</sup>

Examples:

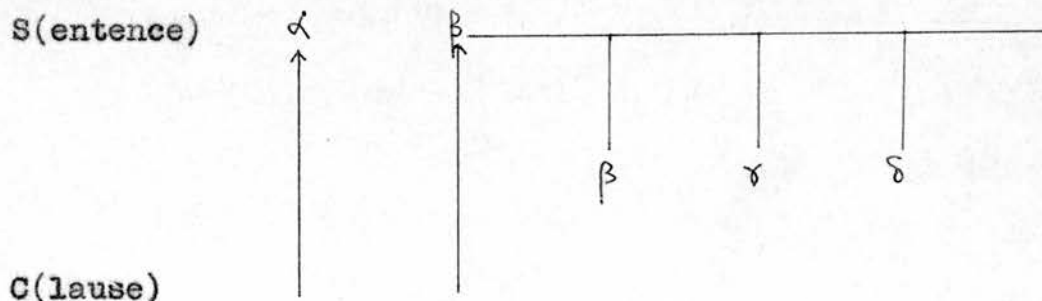
$\alpha\beta\gamma$  I suppose//my face told him my doubt//, for his face reddened.

(EN-24)

In this sentence  $\gamma$  is dependent on  $\beta$  and  $\beta$  is dependent on  $\alpha$ .  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  do not yield distinct classes; they are expounded by the same primary class "dependent clause".

$\gamma$  is  $\gamma$  because it follows  $\beta$  in depth.

To diagrammatize:



2.1.5. The elements  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  :

2.1.5.1. The element  $\alpha$  :

Independent clauses operate at  $\alpha$ . They break down into listed and apposed clauses thereby constituting a system of Linkage.

Examples:

Listed: I sighed, //and turned away from the window. (EN-22)

Apposed: She's not really a friend, //she's an employer. (EN-25)

Listed clauses allow branching, and yield a system of Branching with terms Branched and Unbranched.

Examples:

Unbranched: She got off the bus, //she saw him //and she screamed

Branched: She got off the bus, //saw him //and screamed.

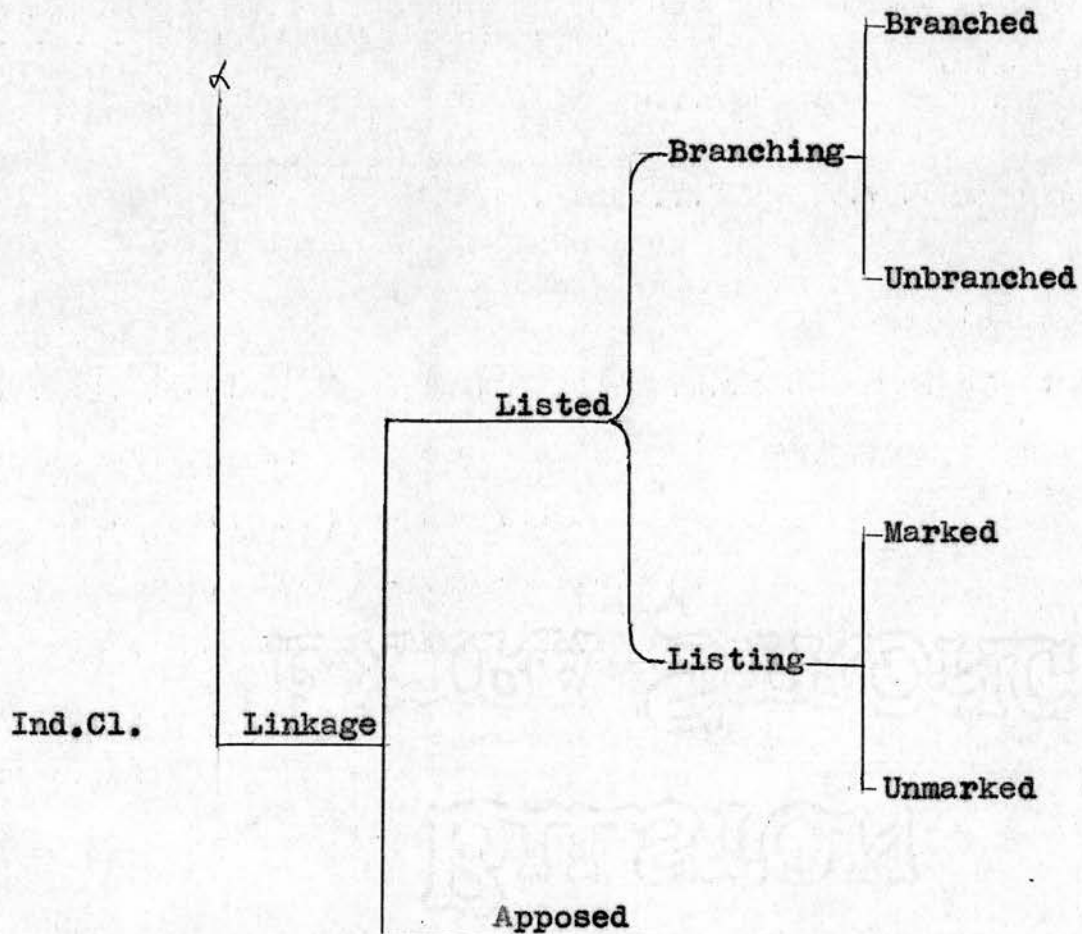
Listed clauses may be marked or unmarked: that is, the exponent of listing may not be present in all (listed) clauses but only in the last one.

Examples:

Marked: Go upstairs //and put your hat on //and I'll have the car brought round. (EN-29)

Unmarked: Go on, //open the door, //and get out. (EN-41)

These classifications of independent clauses may be presented as a diagram thus:



2.1.5.2. The element  $\beta$  :

Dependent clauses are of three types:

- i) Additioning
- ii) Conditioning
- iii) Reported

Each of these will be discussed separately.



### 2.1.5.2.1. Additioning Clauses:

Additioning clauses are what have been traditionally called non-defining relative clauses. They occur on a separate tone group, represented by a comma in orthography. They may either follow or interrupt independent clauses.

Examples:

(The relevant items are underlined)

$\alpha\beta$  I rang up her doctor, //who came around at once ...  
(EN-23)

$\alpha[\beta]$  This freedom, //which became possible in society, //  
is an externalization ...  
(EP-11)

They may be major (+P) or minor (-P)<sup>22</sup>. In case of a major (additioning) clause the predicator may be either a finite or a non-finite verbal group.

Examples:

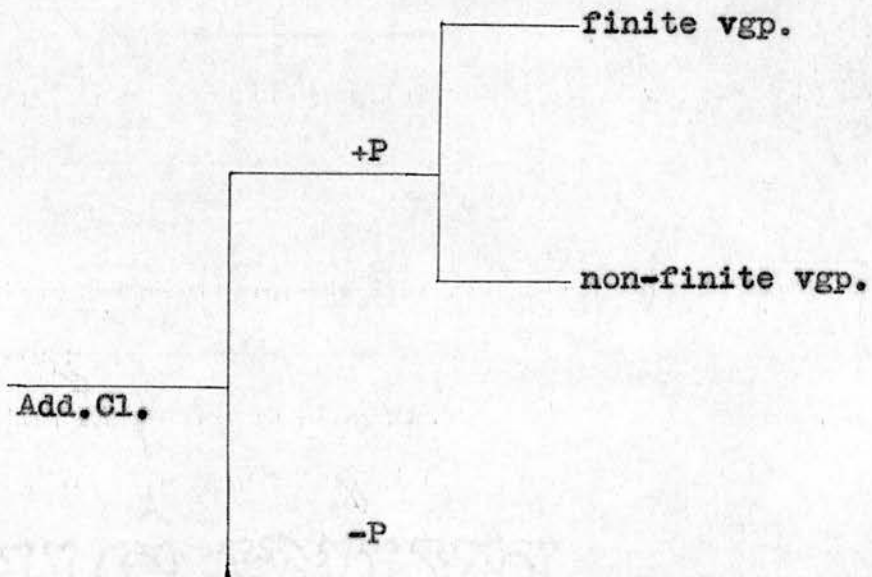
Major (non-finite vgp):

$\alpha[\beta]$  ... the table next to ours, //left vacant for three days, //  
was to be occupied once more.  
(EN-14)

Minor:

$\alpha[\beta]$  ... early morning tea, //stone cold, //was dumped outside  
my bedroom door.  
(EN-13)

Diagrammatically,



#### 2.1.5.2.2. Conditioning Clauses:

Conditioning clauses are the most mobile of the three; they precede, interrupt or follow other clauses.

Examples:

$\beta\alpha$  As soon as the problem is stated in this way,//it becomes necessary ... (EP-20)

$\alpha[\beta]$  There is today, //as we shall see in later chapters,// a general bias against the state (EP-9)

$\alpha\beta$  She always spoke in that tone //when she wished to be impressive (EN-9)

They may or may not have binders (B) and their predicators may be either finite or non-finite verbal groups.

Examples:

+B+P    When he had gone ...

(EN-22)

If in fact the principle of morality be recognized ...

(EP-18)

-B+P    ... looking away from her ...

(EN-14)

(In this case only the non-finite verbal group is possible.)

Conditioning clauses may also be without predicators.

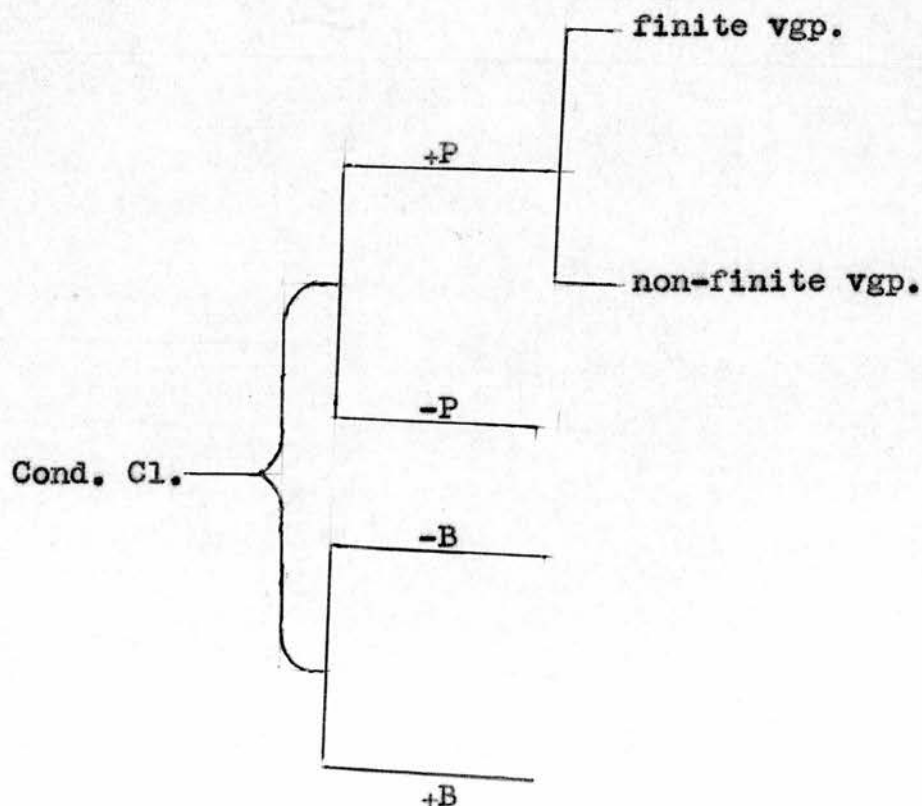
Examples:

+B-P    ... when on holiday as a child ...

(EN-25)

There has been no instance in the text of the conditioning clause without the predicator and without the binder though it is possible.<sup>23</sup>

To sum up diagrammatically -



### 2.1.5.2.3. Reported Clauses:

Reported clauses are more mobile than additioning clauses and less than conditioning ones; they usually follow but occasionally may precede or even include reporting clauses.

Examples:

$\alpha\beta$  I knew // he did not want to lunch with me (EN-24)

$\beta\alpha$  He never would have them in the house, // he said. (EN-32)

$\beta [\alpha]$  She was drowned // you know, // in the bay near Manderley (EN-36)

They are presupposed by reporting verbs like know, say, tell ...<sup>24</sup> (in reporting clauses.) They are not necessarily marked by the presence of binders. But if marked the most common item is that. The predicator of a reported clause is either a finite or a non-finite verbal group. To give an example with the non-finite verbal group:

$\alpha\beta$  I know // how to get to that place.

#### 2.1.5.2.3.1. Direct Speech:

Various attempts have been made to relate direct speech to reported speech and indeed to sentence structure (since sentence boundaries can occur within inverted commas.) For the purpose of this thesis, the most helpful of these is to treat a text within inverted commas as potentially a different text. The status of this text in relation to the other is that of a reported clause. To take an example:



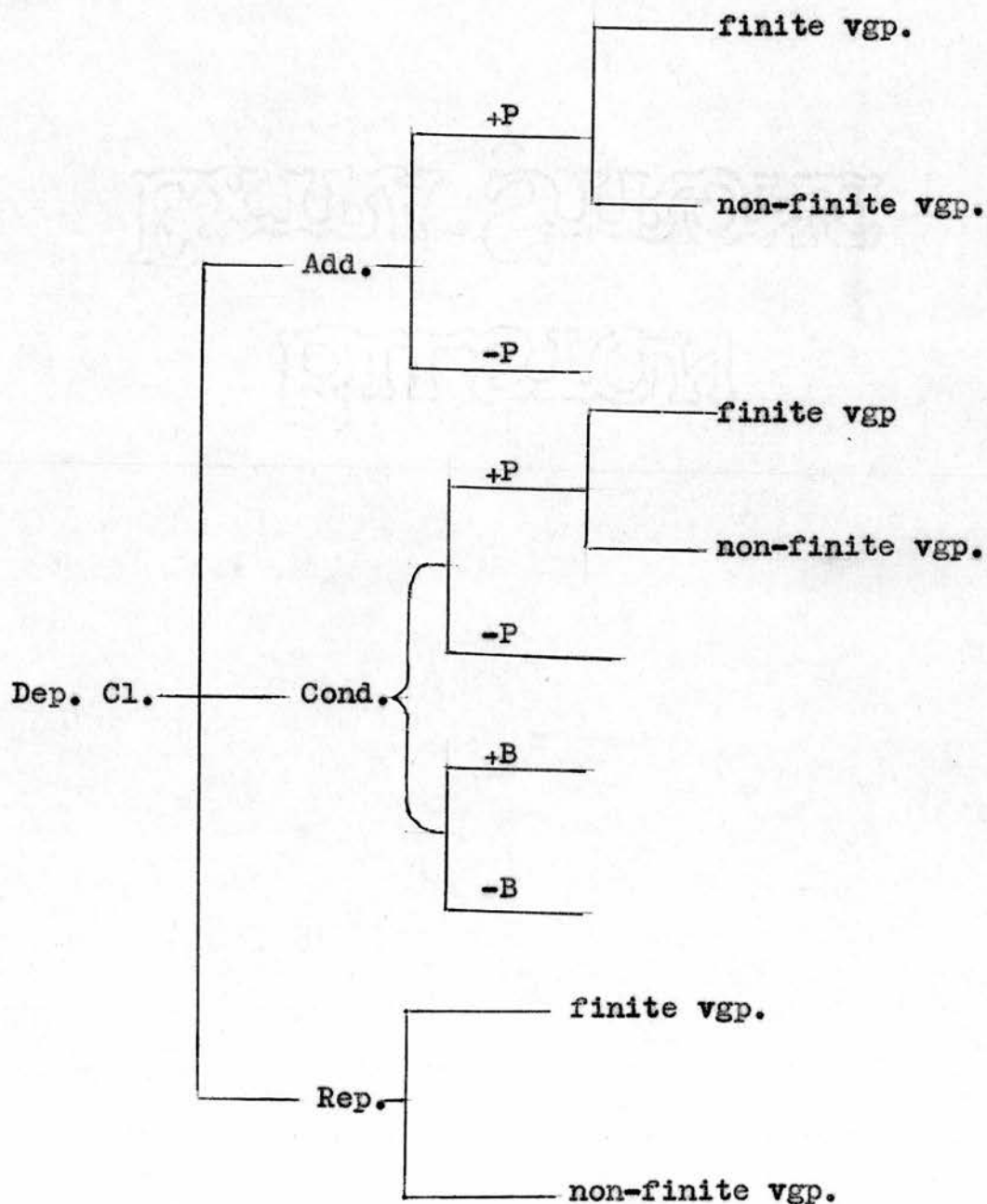


"Tell me about him", he said

(EN-26)

The underlined item is potentially a different text from he said and consequently has to be analysed as independent of the latter. But as far as its relation to the latter is concerned it has the status of a reported clause.

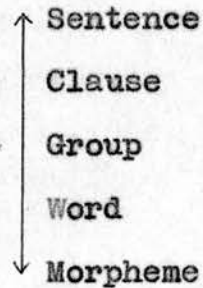
Dependent clauses may, diagrammatically, be summarized as -



## 2.2. The sentence in Hindi

2.2.1. Delimitation:

As in English so in Hindi a rank scale of five units has been recognized:<sup>25</sup>



Since the text under study is a written one, sentences are considered as being orthographically delimited - that is, a sentence-boundary is taken to be a full stop or a question mark or an exclamation mark.<sup>26</sup>

Examples:

is bar tir nijane per baytha  
(HN-9)

(This time the shaft found its mark.)<sup>27</sup>

us din tum kya janti: thi: ?  
(HN-28)

(What did you know that day?)

Oh, choṭa hona bhi: kitni: hinta ki: bat hey!  
(HN-27)

(O what degradation it is in being young!)

Again as in the English texts so in the Hindi ones chapter headings and section headings have been taken as instances of sentences.<sup>28</sup> Occasionally, a dash (-) is accepted as a sentence boundary.<sup>29</sup> For instance:

in duṣṣerīṇamō ka kareṇ yeh tha ki yeh nīti tīn  
gambhīr bhrāmō per adharit thi: -  
(HP-24)

(The reason for these consequences was that it rested upon three serious fallacies.)

What follows this is three separate sentences orthographically marked by full stops.

### 2.2.2. Contextual types:<sup>30</sup>

For a contextual classification of sentences the following categories have been used:

- i) Statement - tumhara nam behut hi sunder aur esdhareñ hey  
(HN-16)  
(You have a very lovely and unusual name.)
- ii) Question - Kya tumhare mā-bap nahī hōy?  
(HN-16)  
(Don't you have your parents?)
- iii) Command - vah khet to le ao  
(HN-4)  
(Bring that letter.)
- iv) Response - nahī, nahī  
(HN-19)  
(No, no)

### 2.2.3. Structure:

Sentences are either simple or compound. As in English so in Hindi they may be represented by sequences of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ ; these two elements are expounded by clause classes "independent" and "dependent" respectively.

Examples:

- $\alpha$       bili to dora ke piche divana hey  
(HN-6)  
(Billy is crazy about Dora.)



- $\alpha$       sidhdhāt ka vivraṇ      (HP-3)  
 (Statement of the theory)
- $\alpha\alpha$       lift ex jhəṭke ke sath ru:k gəi: // əwr həm u:pər  
 pəhūc gəe      (HN-10)  
 (The lift stopped with a jerk and we reached  
 upstairs.)
- $\alpha\beta$       yəh sətʔə həy // ki kuch āgl vicarkō ne niškustavadi:  
 ke in səb niṣkarjō ko svikar nəhī kiya həy      (HP-8)  
 (It is true that some English thinkers have not  
 accepted all the conclusions of Absolutism.)
- $\alpha[\beta]$       ajkəl, // jəysa həm əgle ədhdyayō mē dekhēge, //  
 samanyetəh rajyē ke virudhdh hi: bhavna həy      (HP-1)  
 (Today, as we shall see, there is a general bias  
 against the State.)

Occasionally, there may be sentences with (...<sup>n</sup>) only.

For instance -

- $\beta\beta$       kōoki ek bar log-bag mujhe unki: beti:  
 səməjh beyṭhe the, // jiske karen həm dono ko bəhut hi:  
 lejgit hona pəṛa tha      (HN-5)  
 (Because once people took me as her daughter, which  
 was an acute embarrassment for both of us.)

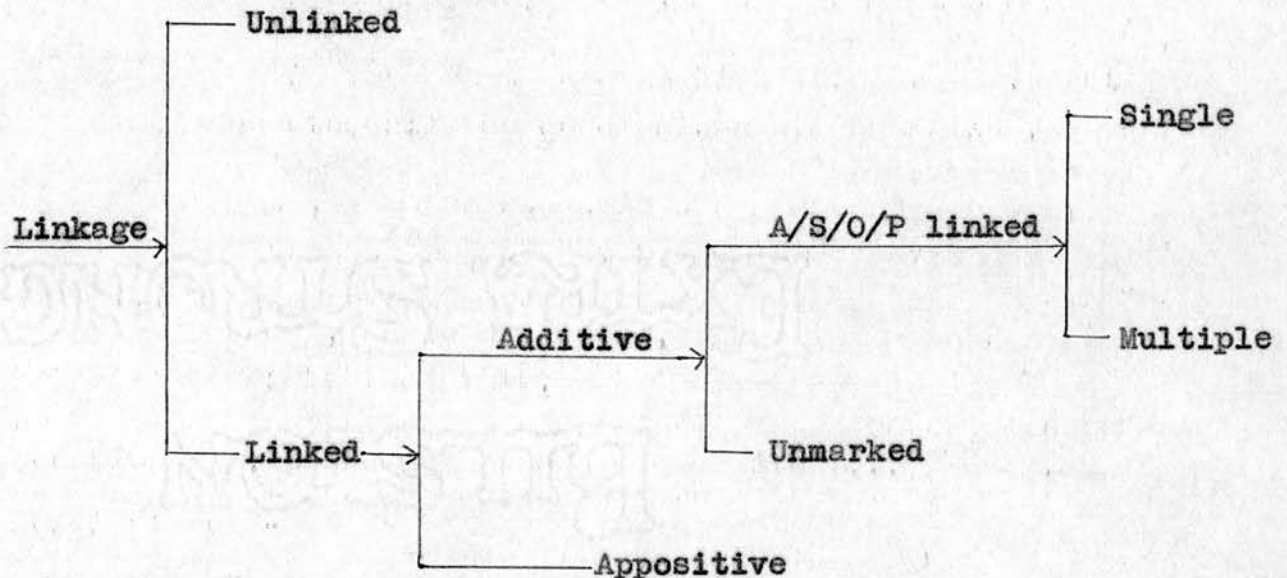
Sentences also display depth-ordered structure:<sup>31</sup>

- $\alpha\beta\gamma$       unke bare mē ve udasīnta isliye dikhate hōy // ki  
 koi: yəh ne səməjh beyṭhe // ki ve ghəməḍi: hōy      (HN-7)  
 (They show modesty about them in case people might  
 think that they are proud.)

2.2.3.0. The elements  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  :

2.2.3.1. The element  $\alpha$  :

Independent clauses operate at . As the classification of independent clauses, proposed here, is different from Verma's it may be helpful to summarize, briefly, the one made by him. His diagrammatic presentation is as follows:<sup>32</sup>



Linked: "///mēy bol rēha tha // ēwr ap sun rēhe the///  
(I was speaking and you were listening)

Additive: Two or more independent clauses joined together by the (i) presence of a linking element (ii) absence of one or more elements present in the preceding clause, (iii) by both (i) and (ii).

Example:

i)///setye hī:  $\alpha$  sunder hēy // ēwr  $\alpha \alpha$  sunder setye hēy ///  
(Truth is beauty and beauty is truth.)

ii)///mēy mī:the  $\alpha$  am lū:ga, //  $\alpha \alpha$  khēṭṭe nēhī ///  
(I will have sweet mangoes not sour ones.)

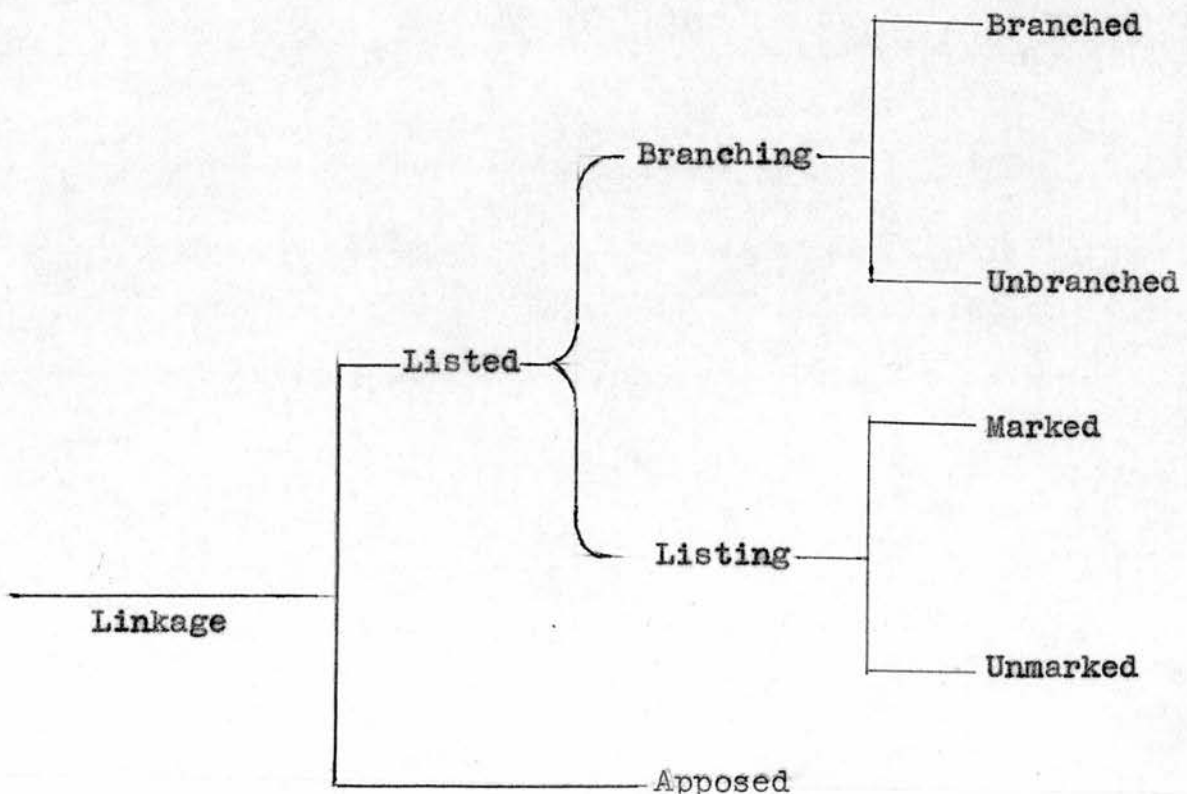
In (ii) linkage is carried by absence of a number of elements in the second clause which are present in the first clause.

Appositive: We may have two independent clauses where the second is apposed to the first.

///setye hi: sunder hey, // yeh servmanyae setye hey///  
(Truth is beauty, this is a well-known saying)"<sup>33</sup>

In this classification all possibilities have been covered, by increase in delicacy, under linked clauses. And it is hard to see what an unlinked clause would be. Certainly an absence of the linking adjunct would not give an example of the unlinked clause; that would be covered by the unmarked, additive, linked clause. Thus the very first distinction between linked and unlinked clauses is doubtful.

Hence the classification of independent clauses in Hindi, similar to the one presented in 2.1.5.1., is proposed here and may, for the sake of convenience, be diagrammatized again and examples given:





**Examples:**

Apposed:

५५      mēy kuch bolī: nahī: // koī: thīk jēbab hī:  
 samējh mē nahī: aya      (HN-10)  
 (I didn't say anything, I couldn't possibly think  
 of an answer.)

Listed:

Marked:

22      surəj cəmek rəha tha // əwr təj həva ke thəpərō  
se semudrə mē səfəd jhag uḥh rəhe the      (HN-11)  
(The sun was shining and the sea was whipped  
white with a high wind.)

Unmarked:

[illegible]

(The second clause is unmarked and the third marked.)

**Branched:**

māyṇe lifafa le liya, // khola // əwr unhē de diya  
(HN-11)  
(I took the envelope, opened it and gave it to him.)

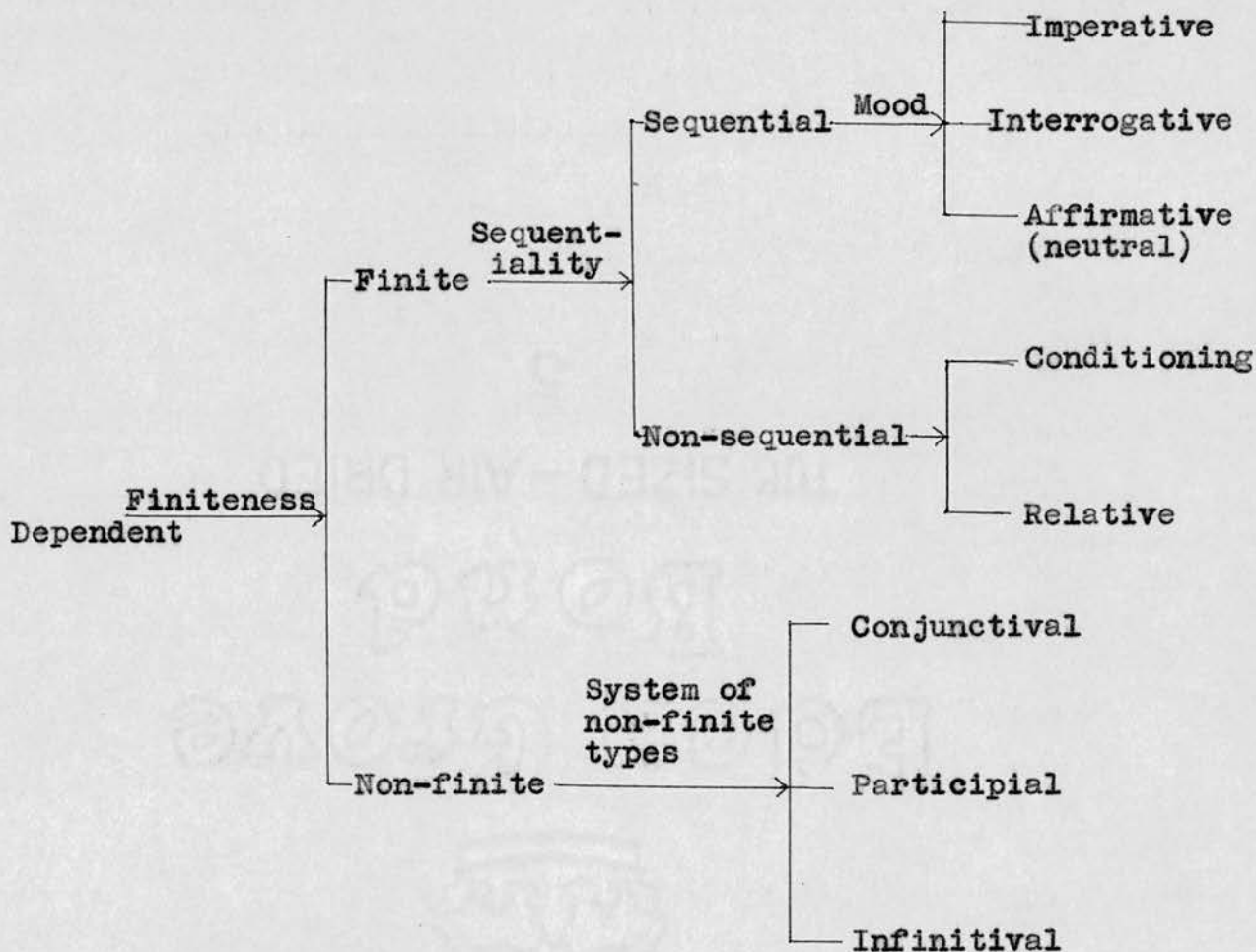
**Unbranched:**

222                    mēyne lifafa le liya, // mēyne use khola // əwr  
                          mēyne unhē de diya  
                          (I took the envelope, I opened it and I gave  
                          it to him.)



### 2.2.3.2. The element $\beta$ :

Dependent clauses operate at  $\beta$  . Since the division of dependent clauses, as proposed here, is again different from Verma's it is helpful to give a brief summary of the one made by him. His diagram is as follows:<sup>34</sup>



#### "Finite Dependent Clause:

///mēkan-malkin ne betaya    //ki piche se misez  
 mails ka phon aya tha

(My landlady told me that Mrs. Miles had been on the telephone.)

Non-finite dependent clause:

///əjāt<sup>β</sup> hokar // veh pukar<sup>α</sup> uṭha ///  
(Being impatient he shouted out)

The system of sequentiality:

It has two terms: sequential and non-sequential. The main distinctions between them are - (i) the sequentials cannot initiate a sentence; (ii) they (the sequentials) may be initiated by ki (that); (iii) they alone enter into the system of mood; (iv) the non-sequentials alone can select from the system of conditioning and relative clauses.

Sequential

///unhone<sup>α</sup> kəha hey // ki pāc beje tek aēge <sup>β</sup> ///  
(He has said that he will arrive there by 5)

Non-sequential

///veh nehī<sup>α</sup> aseṭta hey // kēoki unki: tebiyət <sup>β</sup>  
kherab hey ///  
(He cannot come because he is not well.)

Sub-divisions of the non-sequentials:

The non-sequentials break into the conditioning and relative clauses.

The conditioning clauses:

The conditioning clauses are marked by the presence of one or more non-relative binding adjuncts.

Ex:

/// yedi<sup>β</sup> tum caho // to ja sakte ho <sup>α</sup> ///  
(If you like, you may go)

The relative clauses:

The distinguishing feature of a relative clause is

that it makes at least one selection from the following elements:-

$A^R$ ,  $S^R$ ,  $O^R$  (Relative adjunct, relative subject, relative object.)

Ex:

/// jo mēy  $\beta$  cahta hū, // vāh apke pas nēhī hēy ///  
 $O^R$  S P  
 (You don't have what I want.)"35

As is clear from the summary given above Verma recognizes conditioning clauses later in delicacy and the distinguishing feature, according to him, is the presence of a binding adjunct. As far as conditioning clauses are concerned there is no syntactic difference between the following:

$\beta \alpha$  yēdi tum caho // to ja sakte ho (his example)  
 (If you like you may go)

and

$\beta \alpha$  eṣāt hoker // vāh pukar uṭha (his example)  
 (Being impatient he shouted out)

Thus as in English so in Hindi conditioning clauses may have both finite and non-finite verbal groups.

The objection to what he calls sequential clauses may be explained with the help of the following example:

nehruji, mēy samējhta hū, ek peripēkvē  
 rajnītigyē the (his example)  
 (Nehruji, I think, was a mature politician.)

According to his own analysis this is an example of inserted in  $\beta$ . But it is difficult to classify this dependent clause within the framework presented by him. It is

certainly finite. It cannot be non-sequential because it is neither conditioning nor relative. The only possibility then is sequential. But the sequentials, according to him, 'cannot initiate a sentence' and 'may be initiated by ki (that):<sup>36</sup> This example, however, initiates a sentence and cannot be initiated by ki (that). So it cannot be sequential either.

Hence an alternative description of dependent clauses is presented.

Dependent clauses are divided into additioning, conditioning and reported.

#### 2.2.3.2.1. Additioning clauses:

Additioning clauses may follow, interrupt or precede independent clauses.

Examples:

αβ rajye ke nirākhj̄tavadi: sidhdhāt ke do bhinn srot  
hēy, // jo dono s̄ervpr̄ethem iunani: vicardhara mē  
dikhai: dete hēy (HP-2)  
(The Absolutist Theory of the state is derived from  
two different sources, both of which appear for the  
first time in Greek thought.)

α[β] āsu, // jo ab̄tek mere ākho mē ru:ke hue the, //  
beh nikle (HN-30)  
(Tears, which were held up in my eyes so long,  
began to flow.)



β 2

uske anusar menufyē samaj ki सदस्यता द्वारा जिस  
स्वतंत्रता का उपभोग कर सके है, // वह उस  
स्वतंत्रता से अधिक सत्य है... (HP-3)

(According to him the freedom, which men enjoy as  
members of society, is more real)

They are always major clauses and contain finite verbal  
groups and are marked by the presence of what may be called  
jo-items: that is, items like jo (who, which, that), jise (to  
which, to whom), jiska/jiski (whose).

The probability of any ambiguity between adding  
clauses and rankshifted clauses is very low in Hindi. Since  
the predicator comes finally in clause structure there is no  
ambiguity when adding clauses either follow or precede  
independent clauses. Those adding clauses which  
interrupt independent clauses are distinguished from the rank-  
shifted ones by being on a different tone group, indicated by  
a comma in orthography.<sup>37</sup>

#### 2.2.3.2.2. Conditioning clauses:

Conditioning clauses may precede, interrupt or follow  
independent clauses.

Examples:

β 2

jeysa hamē agle adhyāyō में iḡit karne ka evser  
hoga, // hal ke varjō में nirākuṣṭavādī ke virudh  
rajnī: tik darjēn में aśpeṣṭ pretikriya hui: hai

(HP-9)

(As we shall have occasion to point out in the  
succeeding chapters there has been a marked reaction  
in recent political thought from the Absolutist  
philosophy of the state.)

α [β] mōyne // teli:phonkerke // unke mitfo ko surcna  
de di: ... (HN-12)  
(I having phoned informed her friends)

αβ hem ek dusre se tebtēk batci:t nehī kerēge //  
jēbtēk hemē iski: avejyēkta hi: emubhew ne ho (HN-14)  
(We shall not to each other until we feel  
its necessity.)

Predicators in conditioning clauses may be either  
finite or non-finite verbal groups.

Examples:

finite vgp:

egle din subah jēb sri:meti: hawper jagī: ... (HN-12)  
(The next morning when Mrs. Hopper woke)

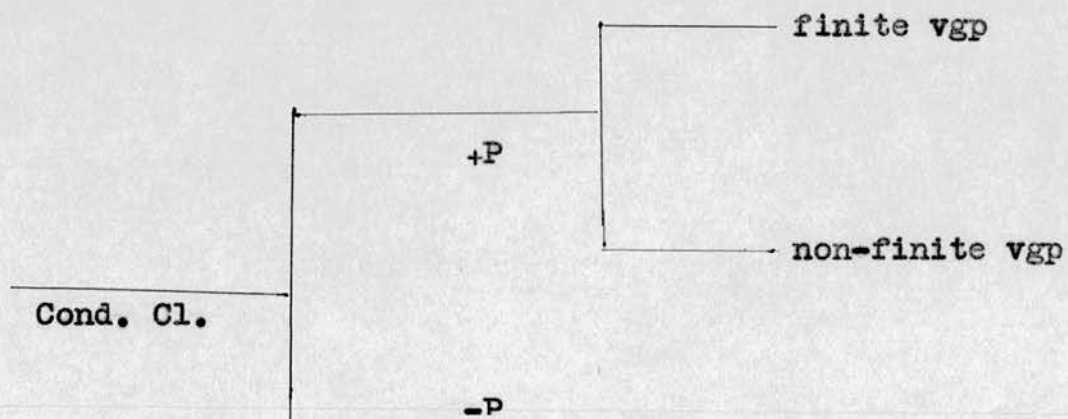
non-finite vgp:

use sunker // mōyne emuman lega liya ... (HN-5)  
(Having heard that I thought)

They may also be without predators<sup>38</sup> though there has been no  
instance in the text.

The presence of binders (like yēdi (if), keōki  
(because), jēb (when) ... ) is not obligatory in conditioning  
clauses; only major conditioning clauses containing finite  
verbal groups are marked by the presence of binders.

To summarize conditioning clauses diagrammatically:



### 2.2.3.2.3. Reported Clauses:

Reported clauses always follow independent clauses. They may, however, include independent clauses.

#### Examples:

αβ     daktər keh gəi: thi: // ki nərs srimeti: həwper ke  
injekʃən ləgaegi: (HN-12)

(The doctor had said that the nurse would give  
Mrs. Hopper injections)

β [α]     pichle sal isi: məhine mə, // mujhe yād həy//,  
bhareṭ mə əkal pəra tha  
(In this month last year, I remember, there was a  
famine in India.)

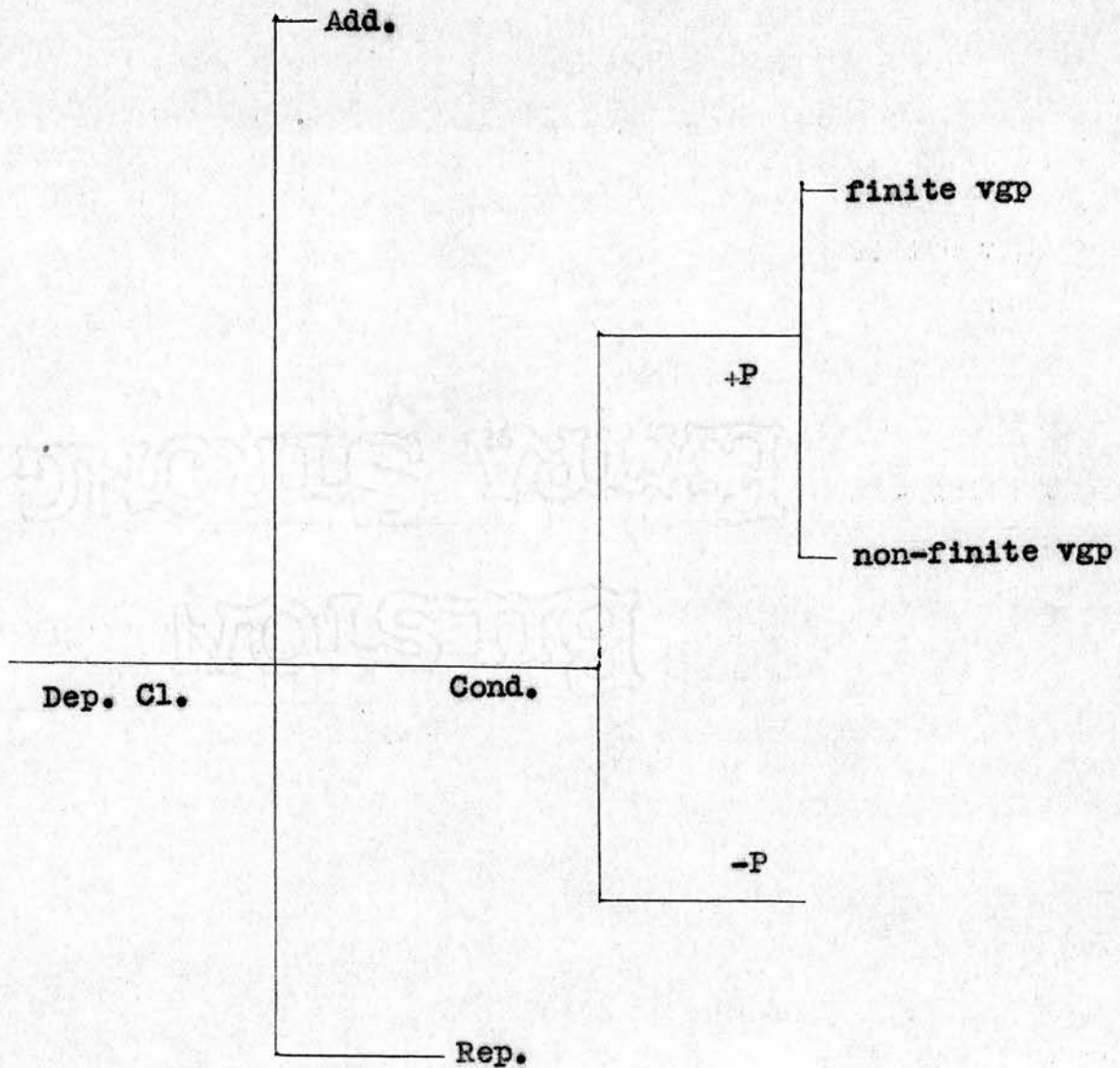
Reported clauses are always major clauses and contain finite verbal groups. They are very often initiated by ki (that) but the presence of ki is by no means obligatory. For instance,

αβ     məy səmjhta huʔ, // tumne bəhut bəri: gəlti: ki:  
(HN-19)

(I think you made a big mistake)

Although it is not marked by the presence of ki it is possible to insert ki. But when a reported clause includes an independent clause it cannot be initiated by ki.

The following is a diagrammatic presentation of dependent clauses:





### 2.3. Comparisons: the sentence

### 2.3.0. Method:

A comparative study of the sentence in English and Hindi or, for that matter, in any pair of languages may be made along two axes - the contextual and the grammatical. The axis of contextual comparison is concerned with functions of the sentence in a situation and is therefore not strictly applicable to units lower than the sentence.<sup>39</sup> In terms of situational components the categories of "statement", "Question", "Command" and "Response" have been recognised, both in English and Hindi, as contextual types of the sentence.<sup>40</sup> The purpose of this section is to study, on the basis of textual equivalence, the degree of correspondence between these types of sentences as applied to texts in English and Hindi. For instance, translation-equivalents of questions in English are, usually, questions in Hindi as well. But there may be deviations from this correspondence. Any such deviations (along with the factors accounting for these deviations) may be worth investigating. To take an instance: walking into a fruiterer's an Englishman would probably say -

Could I have a pound of apples, please?

In a similar situation a Hindi speaking person would say -

ek paūd seb {do  
                  {di:jiye} <sup>41</sup>

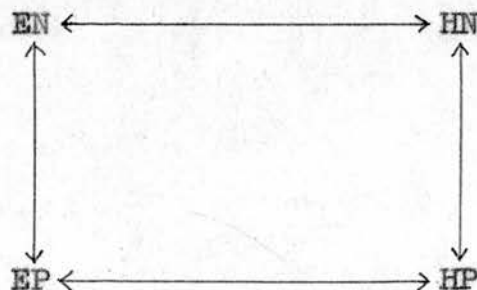
(Give me a pound of apples)

The English sentence is a question whereas the Hindi one is a command although the latter, given the situation, may be regarded as a translation-equivalent of the former. This non-correspondence is due to social and cultural differences between

members of the two speech communities. This different cultural background not only affects translation but also influences considerably things written in English by Indians.<sup>42</sup>

The grammatical axis of comparison is concerned with 'the grammar of the sentence in English and Hindi' - its structure, elements of structure, inter-relations of these elements, classes (of the clause) operating at these elements and so on. There is a fair degree of correspondence at the sentence rank: that is, an English sentence, simple or compound, is generally translated into a Hindi sentence. Within this general grammatical comparison there may be various axes of pre-supposition, dependence, depth etc. For instance, given a sentence having structure  $\alpha \beta \alpha$  where the first  $\alpha$  is pre-supposed (that is,  $\beta$  is dependent on the first  $\alpha$ ), the corresponding pre-supposition relation in its translation-equivalent may be studied.

This section is also concerned with problems of registers arising mainly out of a comparative study of the texts. The comparison, therefore, is not only between EN and HN, EP and HP but also between EN and HN on the one hand and EP and HP on the other. Diagrammatically,



Register differences will be pointed out during the detailed

grammatical comparisons in this section and also at relevant places in other chapters as well.

### 2.3.1. Contextual Types:

The relative figures in the two texts<sup>43</sup> may be tabulated as follows:

Text	Statement	Question	Command	Response	Total
EN	344	36	13	7	400
	86.1%	9%	3.2%	1.7%	
HN	383	40	15	4	442
	86.8%	9.1%	3.3%	.8%	

The percentage of contextual types of sentences remains almost constant except in "Response" (in which the actual numbers are too small.) In fact, if we bring the percentage to the nearest whole number<sup>44</sup> there are no important differences. This high degree of correspondence is, indeed, expected since these types of sentences are derived from situation (which is outside a language.) However, despite the overall similarities there are some interesting points of detail to be noted.

There is a high degree of correspondence in "Question" - that is, questions (in English) are usually translated as



questions (in Hindi). And this is what is expected (since "Question" is a contextual type). But the translation of the following sentences raises some interesting problems:

- (1) He looks ill, doesn't he?
- (2) Doesn't he look ill?
- (3) Isn't she beautiful?
- (4) How beautiful she is!

The difficulty in translating (1) is mainly due to the fact that in Hindi there is no feature corresponding to question tag in English. Consequently, if translated as question, the translation-equivalents of both (1) and (2) will be the same -

- (5) kya {vəh} bimar nahī? dikhai: {deta? / dētē}

(The choice of ve rather than vəh, dētē rather than deta is determined by the relationship between the speaker and the addressee). One way of getting out of this difficulty, especially when a distinction between (1) and (2) must be made, is to translate (1) as two sentences - a statement followed by a question:

- (6) {vəh} bimar dikhai: {deta hey // hey ne? / detē hēy // hey ne}

Thus a distinction between (1) and (2) is maintained in their translation-equivalents (5) and (6) respectively. (The translator of the text under study has followed this method).

(3) may be translated as -

- (7) kitnī sunder hey vəh

but (7) may also be a translation-equivalent of (4). (3) and (4), therefore, may be indistinguishable in their translation-equivalents. For this purpose it may be helpful to divide

Question further into two categories - "information question" and "confirmation question".

Examples:

information question: What is this?

answer: It's a book.

confirmation question: Isn't she sweet?

answer: Yes, she is.

Looked at from this point of view (3) may be regarded as an information question. Information questions may, with reference to situation, appear to have a good deal in common with "statement". So when a distinction between (3) and (4) must be made the possibility of translating (3) as "statement" (possibly with a question mark at the end) may be considered. In the text the following example, similar to (3), has been translated as "statement":

Wouldn't that rather defeat the purpose? (EN-19)

vah teb to mawnṭi: karlo ka vah khurb meja luṭti:  
(HN-8)

But the following example has not been translated as statement -

Isn't she just adorable? (EN-17)

Its translation-equivalent is -

oh kitni: sunder hai (HN-6)

which may also be a translation-equivalent of

How beautiful she is!

"Command" in English is usually translated as "command" in Hindi as well. However, while translating "command" one

point has to be particularly taken note of: the relationship between the speaker and the addressee. In Hindi the fact that a teacher is talking to a student (as against a student talking to teacher) is nowhere more relevant than in "command". This feature is linguistically relevant to Hindi in the sense in which it is not relevant to English.<sup>45</sup>

### 2.3.2. Grammatical Categories:

#### 2.3.2.1. The simple/compound dichotomy:

The figures may be tabulated as follows:<sup>46</sup>

Text		Simple Sentence	Compound Sentence	Total
N	EN	85 (21.2%)	315 (78.8%)	400
	HN	95 (21.4%)	347 (78.6%)	442
P	EP	137 (34.2%)	263 (65.8%)	400
	HP	149 (26.7%)	369 (73.3%)	518

The percentage of simple sentences (as well as of compound sentences) in EN and HN is remarkably constant but there is a difference of about 7% in EP and HP. Though not a big difference it is worth further investigation.

The main reason is that most of the simple sentences in EP<sup>47</sup> contain rankshifted clauses and many of those rankshifted clauses have been translated as clauses operating in sentence structure in HP. To give an example -

✧ The state thus makes possible for a man a freedom  
 //to which he would otherwise be unable to attain//  
 (EP-12)

It has been translated as a compound sentence -

✧β is prēkar rajyē mē vyēkti ke liye eysi:  
 svētśtrta ka upbhog sēmbhēw ho jata hēy //  
 jo use anyē kisi: bhi: prēkar prapt nēhī  
 ho sēkti: thi: (HP-4)



(The translation-equivalent of the rankshifted clause operates in sentence structure.)

In HN more than 75% of simple sentences are translation-equivalents of parts of compound sentences and only about 25% of them are translation-equivalents of simple sentences. Simple sentences may be combined with other compound sentences or sometimes even between themselves and translated as one compound sentence.

For instance,

The lift stopped with a jerk ///we arrived at our floor.  
(EN-21)

These two simple sentences have been translated as one compound sentence -

/// lift ek jhəʔke ke sath ruk gəi: əwɾ həm upɾ  
pəhūc gəe /// (HN-10)

(The lift stopped with a jerk and we reached upstairs)

In EP and HP on the other simple sentences without rankshifted clauses have usually been translated as simple sentences. The usual tendency here is not to combine two or more sentences but to split up one sentence into several smaller sentences. Quite frequently one compound sentence in EP has been translated as two or more (simple or compound) sentences in HP. And at the same time, unlike EN/HN, two or more simple sentences have not usually been translated as one sentence.

2.3.2.1.1. Quoted/Unquoted:<sup>48</sup>

Simple sentences may also be considered with reference to quoted/unquoted speech. The following table gives the figures of those simple sentences which are in quotes and those which are not.<sup>49</sup>

Text	Quoted	Unquoted	Total
EN	44 51.7%	41 48.3%	85
HN	47 49.4%	48 50.5%	95

Though sentences in quotes are generally translated as sentences in quotes as well there may be occasional deviations such as the following -

"Madame is in the bedroom" (EN-22)

māyne beta diya ki may dem sone ke kamre mē hāy  
(HN-11)

(I said that Madame was in the bedroom)

But such deviations are rather rare.

### 2.3.3. Compound Sentences:

Compound sentences may be divided into those which consist only of independent clauses and those which consist of both independent and dependent clauses.

Text		$\alpha\alpha(\dots^n)$	$\cup \alpha(\dots^n) \beta(\dots^n)$	Total
N	EN	105 (33.3%)	210 (66.7%)	315
	HN	71 (20.4%)	276 (79.6%)	347
P	EP	44 (16.7%)	219 (83.3%)	263
	HP	48 (14.3%)	321 (85.7%)	369

#### 2.3.3.1. Compound Sentences: $\alpha\alpha(\dots^n)$

It may be noted that the difference between EN and HN in case of compound sentences consisting only of independent clauses is 13% whereas that between EP and HP is less than 3%. In other words deviations at this point are greater in HN than in HP.

Examples of non-correspondence between EN and HN -

- (1)  $\alpha\alpha$  I sighed, // and turned away from the window  
(EN-22)
- (2)  $\beta\alpha$  ek thēqhi: sās leker // mōy khiṛki: se  
uṭhāi: (HN-11)  
(Taking a sigh I turned away from the window.)
- (3)  $\alpha\alpha$  I walked across to them, // and gave her the  
letter without a word (EN-16)

(4)  $\angle [\beta]$  mōyne // jakar // ciṭhṭhi: cupcap unke  
hathō mē pekṛa di: (HN-5)

(Walking across to them I gave her the letter without a word.)

(2) and (4) are translation-equivalents of (1) and (3); (2) and (4) contain dependent clauses whereas (1) and (3) do not.

But EP and HP show relatively less deviations of this kind. It can be said that in general the HP sentences have structures corresponding to the EP sentences: that is,  $\angle \angle (...^n)$  translated as  $\angle \angle (...^n)$ . However, a lack of correspondence is caused mainly by two reasons -

(i) when EP texts contain rankshifted clauses -

Examples:

$\angle \angle$  For moral relations imply two parties, //and there can be no other party besides the state // which is itself the sum of all parties // (EP-14)

Its translation-equivalent does not have a corresponding structure -

$\angle \beta$  nēytik sambōdho ke liye do pekchō ka hona avēfyek  
hey, // perōtu rajye ke etrikt anye ko: pekch  
sambhew nehī //keōki yeh svēy hi: sēb pekchō ka  
yog hey (HP-7)

(The rankshifted clause has been translated as a clause operating in sentence structure.)

(ii) when one sentence is translated as two or more sentences -

Examples:

But human labour cannot by itself create value; it must use instruments // without which it cannot work // (EP-42)



It has been translated as two sentences:

lekin manev srem se hi: erdh ki: sristi: nahif hojati: ///  
manvie srem ke etirikt kuch erye upadano ki:  
avejyakta bhi: patti: hay (HP-37)

(The second clause has been translated as a sentence by itself.)

### 2.3.3.2. Compound Sentences: $\cup \alpha (...^n) \beta (...^n)$

#### 2.3.3.2.1. Quoted/Unquoted:

The figures of compound sentences with structure  $\cup \alpha (...^n) \beta (...^n)$  along the axis of the quoted/unquoted speech are as follows:

Text	Quoted	Unquoted	Total
EN	76 36.1%	137 63.9%	210
HN	104 37.6%	172 62.4%	276

The number of sentences in quotes in HN has increased by about 2%. This little increase is due to the fact that occasionally one sentence in quotes in EN has been split up into two or more sentences in HN as, for instance, the following:

"You are to stay in bed until I allow you to get up," he told her, "I don't like that sound of that heart of yours, and it won't get better unless you get perfectly quiet and still." (EN-23)

The sentence in quotes has been translated as two sentences:

usne srimeti: hawper se keha, "jebtek mōy apko  
ijajet ne dū tēbtek apko bister per hi: pēre  
rehna hoga /// mujhe apke hriday ki: dhayen thik  
nehī~ malum de rehī: hay awr yeh tēbtek thik  
nehī hogi: jebtek ap bilkul cupcap nehī pēri:  
rehīgi: (HN-12)

(He said to Mrs. Van Hopper, "you are to stay in  
bed until I allow you to get up. I don't like that  
sound of that heart of yours and it won't get  
better until you lie quietly in bed.")

Here the two sentences together are translation-equivalents of  
one sentence and inverted commas extend across the sentence  
boundary.

The figures of equivalents/non-equivalents of  
sentences in quotes having corresponding structures are as  
follows:

Text	Equivalents	Non-equivalents	Total
EN	39	37 48.6%	76
HN	39	65 62.5%	104

Again the degree of non-equivalence is much higher than that  
of equivalence.

### 2.3.3.2.2. The element $\alpha$ :

#### 2.3.3.2.2.1. The axis of pre-supposition:

The element  $\alpha$  has been divided along the axis of pre-supposition: a pre-supposed  $\alpha$  is that which has  $\beta$  dependent on it and an unpre-supposed  $\alpha$  is that which does not have any  $\beta$  dependent on it. (For the purpose of this study the unpre-supposed  $\alpha$  is symbolized as  $\alpha$  and the pre-supposed  $\alpha$  as  $\alpha -$ )

#### Examples:

$\alpha$  He stopped the car,//and I could see// that the edge of the road bordered a vertical slope... (EN-31)

$\alpha -$  We ate in silence,//for Mrs. Van Hopper liked to concentrate on food ... (EN-14)

We shall now divide  $\alpha$  accordingly and the figures are presented in the following table:

Text		$\alpha$	$\alpha -$	Total
N	EN	240 (39.9%)	366 (60.1%)	605
	HN	221 (32.7%)	451 (67.2%)	676
P	EP	417 (70.2%)	177 (29.8%)	594
	HP	426 (48.4%)	451 (51.6%)	877

The differences in  $\alpha$  between EN and HN is about 9% whereas between EP and HP it is more than 20%. To account for this big gap let us consider the following example:



αβ It is true //that some English thinkers have declined to accept all the implications of the Absolutist theory, // or have at any rate failed to apply them with the ruthless logic of the German writers Bernhardi and Treilschke. (EP-15)

It has been translated as two sentences:

αβ yeh setye hey // ki kuch āgle vicarkō ne nirākuṣṭavadi: ke sab nijkerjō ko svikar nehī kiya hey //

αβ kām se kām unhone unhē us rūp mē nehī āgikar kiya hey // jaysa ham jermen lekhek bernhardi: tetha traitskhe mē pate hōy // (HP-8)

(It is true that some English thinkers have not accepted all the implications of the Absolutist theory. At least they have not accepted them as we find in the German writers Bernhardi and Treilschke.)

The English sentence has one α - but its translation-equivalent, being two sentences, has two α -. Thus where there is one α - in EP there are two in HP. Hence in terms of percentage the number of α - in HP has increased and consequently that of (α) decreased.

It is also to be noted that only in EP the percentage of α - is less than that of (α) whereas in all other texts it is the opposite of this. And the difference is quite considerable - that of about 40%. The main reason is that in a sentence the number of β's dependent on only one α is greater in EP than in any other text. To give an example:

α[ββ]β Furthermore, // since the freedom // which man obtains in and through the State // is a real and concrete freedom // and, as such, opposed to the abstract and unreal freedom // which he enjoys as an isolated individual, // the burglar is acting freely // when he is being marched to the police station. (EP-14)



This sentence has only one  $\alpha$  - and three  $\beta$ 's are dependent on it whereas its translation-equivalent, though one sentence, has two  $\alpha$  -:

$\beta\alpha\beta\alpha$  jis svatštrta ki: prapti mamujye ko rajye mē tetha rajye dvara hoti: hey // veh yetharth tetha murt svatštrta hey // ewr iske viprit ek ekele vyekti ke rupmē jis svatštrta ka veh upbhog karta hey // veh esetye tetha emurt hey, // isliye bendi: grih ko cor ka le jaya jana uska svatštr acereṇ hey

(HP-6)

This is not to suggest that the fact of a number of  $\beta$ 's dependent on one  $\alpha$  is exclusive to EP but what is meant is that it is relatively more marked in EP than in any other text.

#### 2.3.3.2.3. The element $\beta$ :

In all the four texts dependent clauses, in general, do not display any significant differences or contrasts. Their percentage in all of them has turned out to be nearly the same:

	Text	$\beta$	Total no. of Cls.
N	EN	517 (46.1%)	1122
	HN	649 (48.9%)	1325
P	EP	515 (46.4%)	1109
	HP	782 (47.1%)	1659

Let us now divide  $\beta$  into  $\beta$  - types (additioning, conditioning and reported) and tabulate their figures:

Text		a	c	r	Total
N	EN	96 (18.5%)	252 (48.8%)	169 (32.6%)	517
	HN	72 (11.1%)	370 (57.1%)	207 (31.7%)	649
P	EP	97 (18.7%)	237 (46.1%)	181 (35.1%)	515
	HP	241 (30.8%)	235 (30.1%)	306 (39.1%)	782

(a = additioning; c = conditioning; r = reported)

At this point the English texts (EN and EP) do not reveal any significant differences but the Hindi texts (HN and HP) do. The maximum difference between EN and EP is about 4% in reported clauses; in conditioning clauses it is about 3% and there is practically no difference in additioning clauses. The Hindi texts (HN and HP) on the other hand are fairly distinct: the difference in conditioning clauses is about 27%, in additioning clauses 20% and in reported clauses 7%.

After noting these brief and general remarks we shall now examine these  $\beta$ -types on the basis of their pre-supposition relation: that is, in terms of their respective positions relative to  $\angle$ . The following examples illustrate conventions of notations and symbols:

r  $\leftarrow$  I wonder // you can bear to leave it (EN-18)

c  $\rightarrow$  If Billy had a home like Manderley // he would not play around in Palm Beach. (EN-18)

a ↓ His sister, // who was a hard, rather practical  
person, // used to complain ... (EN-33)

Using these symbols and notations the figures have been tabulated  
as follows:

a				c				r					
			TOTAL				TOTAL				TOTAL		
N	EN	85 88.2%	x	11 11.8%	96	169 67.2%	41 16.4%	42 16.4%	252	159 94%	10 6%	x	169
	HN	57 79.6%	6 8.1%	9 12.3%	72	84 23.1%	153 40.7%	133 36.2%	370	207 100%	x	x	207
P	EP	66 66.9%	x	31 33.12%	97	129 54.8%	67 28.4%	41 16.8%	237	178 98.4%	3 1.6%	x	181
	HP	184 75.7%	43 18.4%	14 5.9%	241	112 47.6%	88 37.6%	35 14.8%	235	306 100%	x	x	306

Each of these three will now be discussed separately.



### 2.3.3.2.3.1. Additioning Clauses:

As said earlier additioning clauses, in general, (that is, their percentage with reference to the total number of dependent clauses) do not display any contrasts in the two English texts (EN and EP). But they reveal certain notable differences when examined with reference to their positions relative to  $\alpha$ . There is a difference of about 21% in the percentage of  $a \downarrow$  as well as  $a \leftarrow$ . (In English  $a \rightarrow$  is not possible.)

The Hindi texts (HN and HP) on the other hand show contrasts in their percentage of additioning clauses (with reference to dependent clauses) and also, to some extent, in  $a \rightarrow$  and  $a \downarrow$ . The percentage of additioning clauses in HP is 20% higher than in HN; it is also higher by 10% in  $a \rightarrow$  but is less by 6% in  $a \downarrow$ .

Between EN and HN the percentage of additioning clauses has gone up in HN and has gone down in conditioning and reported clauses. The main reason for this loss of additioning clauses, so to say, is that many of them have been translated as separate sentences or combined with other sentences.

#### Examples:

$\alpha\beta\beta$  I rang up her doctor, // who came round at once // and diagnosed the usual influenza (EN-23)

It has been translated as two sentences -

$\alpha$  māyṇe unke ḍakt̥r ko ṭelifon kiya ///

$\alpha[\beta]\alpha\beta$  usne // fəwṛən ak̥r // unki: p̥arikcha ki: // əwṛ b̥ətaya // ki s̥eda ki: bh̥āti unh̥ē iflu̥ēza ho g̥əya h̥əy (HN-12)

(I phoned her doctor. Having arrived soon he examined her and said it was the usual influenza.)

It happens usually in case of a ← whereas examples of a ↓ are translated as a ↓

It is interesting to note that minor additioning clauses have been translated as additioning clauses. For instance -

α [ β ] ... early morning tea, // stone cold, // was dumped outside my bedroom door. (EN-13)

α [ β ] subeh ki: cae, // jo baref jaysi: thēdhi: hoti: thi: // veh kemre ke sone ke dervaze ke bahar rekh jati: thi: (HN-2)  
(She used to dump morning tea, which was cold like ice, outside my bedroom door.)

Another example:

.... for once I had been taken for her daughter, // an acute embarrassment for us both. (EN-16)

keḍki ekbar log-bag mujhe unki: beṭi: semejh beythe the, // jiske karen ham dono ko hi: behut lejgit hona para tha

(Because people had once taken me her daughter, because of which both of us were very much embarrassed.)

In Hindi additioning clauses are always major clauses and contain finite verbal groups.

So far as the percentage of additioning clauses in P is concerned it is contrary to what we get in N: that is, in HP it has increased by about 12%. The main reason for this is the presence of too many rankshifted clauses in EP and many of them have been translated as additioning clauses.

For instance -

✓ The Greek conception of human nature provides the starting point of the second line of thought which leads to the Absolutist State.

(EP-10)

The underlined rankshifted clause has been translated as an additioning clause:

✓β memujye vijyēk iunani: dharmā us dusrī: vicar rekha ka prasthan- vindu hey // jo nirākuṣ rajye ki: or le jati: hey (HP-2)

This fact, however, is to be taken as particularly relevant to P and does not invalidate the point made earlier (with reference to N) that additioning clauses coming finally in sentence structure are likely to provide boundary for separate sentences in translation. It holds good between EP and HP as well:

Owing to its comparative smallness it affords opportunities for the expression of the Common Will and the development of individual personality, // which the size of the State precludes. (EP-38)

In the translation-equivalent of this sentence the underlined clause has been translated as a separate sentence:

/// in samāhō ya sōsthaō ke epekchakrit choṭe hone se inmē samanyē sōkēlpō ki: ebhivyēkti tētha inke sēdasyō ke vyēktitvē ke vikas ka evsēr rēhta hey ///

/// adhunik rajyē ke vrihit akar ke karēṇ usmē yeh sambhēw nēhī: hey /// (HP-32)

(Because of its comparative smallness there is an opportunity for the expression of the Common Will

and the development of the individual personality. It is not possible in a modern State because of its size.)

A further division of additional clauses on the basis of the presence or absence of P(+P or -P) is relevant only to the English texts (since there is no such choice in Hindi).

Text	+P		-P	Total
	Finite vgp	Non-fin. vgp		
EN	11	48	37	96
	11.6%	50%	38.4%	
EP	74	20	3	97
	76.2%	20.9%	2.9%	

According to these figures the two English texts display striking differences.

#### 2.3.3.2.3.2. Conditioning Clauses:

Conditioning clauses, taken as a whole, do not display much difference in the two English texts (EN and EP) but they show some differences when examined with respect to their positions relative to  $\propto$ . (See p.85) The differences are in  $c \rightarrow$  and  $c \leftarrow$ ; in EP the percentage of  $c \rightarrow$  is higher by 12% (and consequently that of  $c \leftarrow$  lower by 12%). The percentage of  $c \downarrow$  is almost constant.



The two Hindi texts (HN and HP) on the other hand reveal considerable differences even in the percentage of conditioning clauses; in HP it is almost the half of HN (p.83) This is mainly due to the increase in the percentage of additioning clauses in HP. The main differences are in  $c \rightarrow$  and  $c \downarrow$  ; in the former the percentage in HP is higher by about 25% and in the latter lower by 20%.

Conditioning clauses may or may not have binders (+B or -B) and have been divided on this basis:

Text		+B	-B	Total
N	EN	169 (67.1%)	83 (32.9%)	252
	HN	125 (33.7%)	245 (66.3%)	370
P	EP	171 (72.1%)	66 (27.9%)	237
	HP	162 (68.9%)	73 (31.1%)	235

With reference to the presence or absence of binders, EP and HP, according to these figures, show a very high degree of correspondence whereas EN and HN do not. The lack of correspondence between EN and HN is, in fact, very much marked. The following examples illustrate this fact:

The attentions of the maitre d'hotel had opened up a train of thought, and as we drank coffee I told him about Blaize, the Dressmaker. (EN-28)

The translation-equivalent of the underlined conditioning clause which contains a binder is a conditioning clause without a binder:

kəwfi: pite-pite mēyne sri: de winter ko betaya ...

(HN-19)

(while drinking coffee I told Mr. de Winter ...)

Another example:

This time his shaft had found its mark, for she reddened, and laughed a little awkwardly.

(EN-21)

In translation the binder for gets lost:

lejja se lal hoti: hui: srimeti: hawper ajiḥ  
tereh se hēsi: ...

(HN-9)

(Being red with embarrassment she laughed awkwardly ...)

In HP on the other hand clauses with binders have usually been translated with binders as well. And this brings such a high degree of correspondence.

Before considering conditioning clauses on the basis of finite and non-finite verbal groups the problem of minor conditioning clauses may, briefly, be discussed. Both in English and Hindi there may be conditioning clauses without predicators.<sup>50</sup> But they certainly are rare. There has been only two examples in the English texts and none in the Hindi ones. The two examples are -

- i) We ate for a while without talking, and I thought of a picture postcard I had bought once at a village shop, when on holiday as a child in the country.

(EN-25)

The translation-equivalent of this clause goes at the group rank -

ecanək mujhe us postkād ka dhyan aya, jo mēyne  
kisi: chuṭṭi: ke din ek gaōn mē khēri: da tha  
(HN-15)

(Suddenly I remembered that postcard which I had  
bought on a holiday in some village.)

ii) ... if valid for the State ... (EP-37)

This has been translated as a major conditioning clause:

... ve yēdi rajye per lagū hōyē ... (HP-31)  
(if they are valid for the State)

In the following discussion these examples have been ignored.

The figures of conditioning clauses divided on the  
basis of finite and non-finite verbal groups are as follows:

Text		Finite vgp.	Non-finite vgp.	Total
N	EN	166 (66.1%)	85 (33.9%)	251
	HN	121 (32.7%)	249 (67.3%)	370
P	EP	158 (66.1%)	78 (33.9%)	236
	HP	148 (63.2%)	86 (36.8%)	234

The figures show remarkable differences between EN and HN on  
the one hand and almost equally remarkable similarity between  
EP and HP. In translation a change from the finite to the  
non-finite verbal group has turned out to be quite common  
between EN and HN. The following two examples are given by  
way of illustrations:

... as we went upstairs in the lift (EN-21)

Its translation-equivalent contains non-finite verbal group:



... lift se cəphte hue ... (HN-10)  
(going upstairs in the lift)

Another example:

... when she had missed the sweet ... (EN-15)

It has been translated as

... mi:hi: plet ki: cinta nə kerte hue ... (HN-4)  
(Having missed the sweet dish)

which also contains a non-finite verbal group.

At this point two features may particularly be noted. Firstly, a clause with P in multiple phase may be translated as two clauses, one of them a conditioning clause with a non-finite verbal group. For instance,

α It's so delightful to have run into you like this ...  
(EN-20)

It has been translated as two clauses -

β α tumse is tərən milker // bə:ɣi: khufi: hui: (HN-9)  
(I'm pleased to have met you like this)

Secondly, clauses like the following are translated as two clauses, one of them again being a conditioning clause with a non-finite verbal group:

α You must come and have a drink sometime in the suite  
(EN-20)

α [β] kisi: din mere kemre mē // akər // cae pio (HN-9)  
(Come to have tea some time in my suite.)

Some independent clauses have also been translated as conditioning clauses containing non-finite verbal groups. (For examples see p.76 ). As a result of all these the percentage of



conditioning clauses with non-finite verbal groups has gone up in HN.

The texts EP and HP on the other hand display remarkably high correspondence when examined on the basis of the presence or absence of binders as well as with reference to finite and non-finite verbal groups. That is, in these cases conditioning clauses in EP get corresponding translation-equivalents.

2.3.3.2.3.3. Reported Clauses:

It is interesting to note that there is very little difference in the percentage of reported clauses in all the four texts: the maximum difference is 3% and that is between EP and HP (p. 83 ). However, the actual numbers of reported clauses in the Hindi texts have considerably gone up and therefore it is worthwhile discussing this increase.

A clause is very often translated as one clause. But if the given clause contains a reporting verb (with no reported clause following) it may be translated as two clauses, one of them being a reported clause. For instance -

I told him about the influenza (EN-24)

This has been translated as two clauses:

māyne beta diya // ki unhē influēza ho gaya hēy (HN-14)

(I said that she had influenza)

This also applies to clauses with P in phases:

I expected the room to be empty (EN-23)

mujhe umīd thi // ki kāmra khali milega (HN-13)

(I expected that the room would be empty.)

one more example:

... the individual should not only demand the right to decide for himself ... (EP-22)

Its translation-equivalent is also two clauses:

... voh is adhikar ki māg kare // ki voh svōy hi unka nirṇey karega (HP-14)

(He should demand that he would decide for himself.)

Reported clauses are not necessarily morphologically marked but if so the most common item is that. But the following items have also occurred in the text:

whether

how

what

why

when

Examples:

He was pondering my exact relationship to her, and wondering whether he must bracket us together in futility. (EN-19)

It is hard to see how the State can commit theft or murder ... (EP-15)

I wonder what my life would be today ... (EN-14)

It becomes difficult to see why it is any harder for the State ... (EP-18)

I'm not sure when I shall get back (EN-20)

In Hindi on the other hand the corresponding item, if present, is invariably ki; there is no other choice.

The following are lists of reporting verbs in English and Hindi:

English	Hindi
admit	kehna (say)
ask	janna (know)
assume	jebabdēna (answer)
assure	dekhna (see)
begin	dikhana (show)
believe	peta cēlna (seem)
compalin	bolna (tell)
conclude	puchna (ask)
demand	lēgna (seem)
feel	betana (tell)
find	samējhna (understand)
follow	socna (think)
hope	sunna (hear)
imagine	jikaet kerna (complain)
know	amuman lēgana (expect)
prefer	asā kerna (hope)
propose	manna (believe)
point out	arambh kerna (begin)
realize	niskarj nikalna (conclude)
remember	
say	
see	
seem	
show	
suggest	
suppose	
tell	
think	
urge	
wish	
wonder	

These lists are taken from the texts under study and therefore are, by no means, exhaustive of the possibilities in the language as a whole. They may, however, be taken as fairly representative.



## CHAPTER 3

### THE CLAUSE

### 3.1. The clause in English

3.1.1. Elements of structure:

S(ubject), P(redicator), C(omplement), A(djunct) is an inventory of elements of clause structure.<sup>1</sup> They are expounded by classes of the unit group - S/C by the nominal group, P and A by the verbal and the adverbial group respectively.

For instance -

SPCA I / told / him / about the influenza

(EN-24)

S and C are recognized as two elements because they stand in different relations to P. But because of a high degree of overlap their exponents may be conflated into a single primary class: the nominal group.<sup>2</sup>

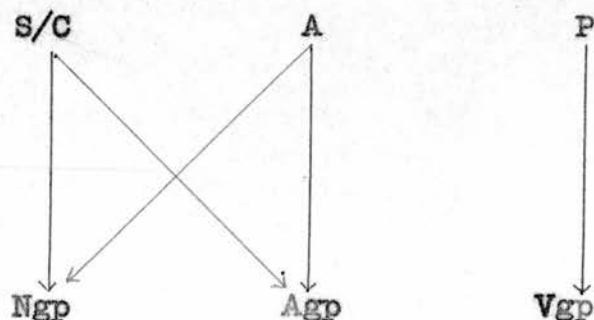
This exponence relation between elements (of structure of a unit) and classes (of the unit next below) is not bi-unique: that is, more delicately, the nominal group is recognized as operating at A and the adverbial group at S/C.<sup>3</sup>

Examples:

SPA I / hesitated / a moment (EN-25)

P[S]A Shall / we / go / home (EN-31)

In both these examples the nominal groups a moment and home are exponents of A. This relation may be diagrammatized as:-



(Red lines indicate cross-exponence, recognized at a later stage in delicacy.)

It may be mentioned at this point that Quirk needs a blanket symbol for C and A. " ... it is important to recognize in English clause structure an abstraction SV'X', embracing SVC and SVA, where 'X' can be informally read as 'post-verbal piece'.<sup>4</sup> But since the distinction between them, after all, has to be made it does not sound very attractive to conflate the two at primary delicacy and make the distinction at a later stage. They are also, in most cases, expounded by different primary classes and so it is preferable to distinguish them at primary delicacy rather than at secondary delicacy.

In addition to these four elements "we will require another element, called Z, to deal with places in clause structure where it is impossible to decide between S and C."<sup>5</sup> Thus Z may be defined as that element which is expounded by the nominal group and is neither S nor C. For instance -

SP ZPC I / want / you / to have / luncheon with me  
(EN-24)

### 3.1.1.1. The element S:

" ... the exponent of "subject" is that nominal group which precedes the verbal group with no other nominal group in between."<sup>6</sup> This criterion takes us a long way and S is identified accordingly:



Examples:

S P C His own words / must have jolted / a memory (EN-19)

S P C We / may grant / the proposition ... (EP-18)

In some clauses, as in the following, we may have to use certain tests to determine this nominal position<sup>7</sup> of S:

A P S There / 's / Dora (EN-17)

By a systemic variation (that is, a change of mood<sup>8</sup> from affirmative to interrogative) it becomes clear that Dora is an exponent of S and not there.<sup>9</sup>

S may be expounded by one nominal group or more than one nominal group as in the following, for instance:

The State and the community / are not ... (EP-18)

This feature has been called "linear recursion" and accounted for as (nominal) group complex.<sup>10</sup> For the purpose of this thesis, however, such instances have been noted as nominal groups in list. There may also be nominal groups in apposition. For instance -

You Englishmen / are ... (EN-18)

There may be rankshifted clauses operating at S. For instance -

// What I am in fact aware of // / is ... (EP-19)

3.1.1.2. The element C:

S and C are distinguished by their relative positions to P; the former precedes and the latter follows P. "The Complement of a clause most frequently follows the Predicator..."<sup>11</sup>

Examples:

SPC ... you / got / my note (EN-24)

SPC We / may grant / the proposition (EP-18)

In thematically marked clauses, however, C need not follow the predicator.<sup>12</sup>

As at S so at C there may be more than one nominal group expounding one C.

Examples:

list: The State / has / furthermore / a real will and  
a real personality of its own. (EP-16)

apposition: Her curiosity / was / a disease, almost a mania  
(EN-14)

The maximum number of complements in a clause is two<sup>13</sup> and they are distinguished as intensive and extensive complements. An extensive complement ( $C^e$ ) may, but an intensive complement ( $C^i$ ) may not be replaced by a pronoun.

Examples:

SPC<sup>e</sup> ... he / realized / my distress (EN-19)

that is, my distress may be replaced by it.

SPC<sup>i</sup> he / looks / happy

As Sinclair suggests they may also be distinguished on the basis of their exponents:

"As a general rule, if C is expounded by an adjective, or if the nominal group expounding it can be replaced by an adjective head group without change of structural meaning, then that C is a member of a class which we call intensive complements."<sup>14</sup>

When both  $C^e$  and  $C^i$  are present in a clause the former precedes the latter:

SP  $C^e C^i$  The State / makes / it / possible ... (EP-12)

There may be two  $C^e$  in a clause but not two  $C^i$ :

SP  $C^e C^e$  He / gave / me / the menu (EN-24)

Contextually,  $C^i$  has the same referent as S.<sup>15</sup>

There may also be rankshifted clauses operating at C:

SP C He would / not be / what he is (EP-14)

### 3.1.1.3. The element P:

The element P is expounded by the class verbal of the unit group. In traditional grammar the presence of a finite verb has been considered necessary for a clause. But since many sentences are without verbs we do not regard the presence of P as obligatory in a clause. The presence or absence of P, however, is taken care of by a distinction between major clauses

(+P) and minor clauses (-P). This distinction is relevant to certain systems, discussed below. (See 3.1.2.)

The verbal group operating at P is either finite or non-finite:

finite vgp: We had been sitting (EN-26)

It follows ... (EP-14)

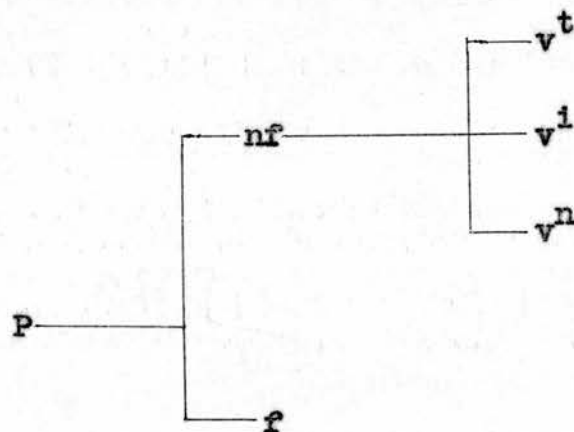
Non-finite verbal groups are of three kinds:

$v^t$  ... to use Hegel's language ... (EP-12)

$v^i$  ... pushing back his chair (EN-20)

$v^n$  ... the windows tightly closed (EN-21)

This may be summarized as follows:



There may be more than one P in a clause and there is no theoretical limit to their number.

Examples:

... some English thinkers / have declined / to accept ... (EP-15)

I / remember / staying ... (EN-13)

Green / does not appear / to have attempted / to solve ... (EP-16)



Clauses containing non-finite verbal groups only may also have more than one P:

... expecting / him / to smile ... (EN-18)

At this point the following examples may be considered:

(1) ... go and ask the waiter for another cup (EN-16)

(2) I sighed, // and turned away from the window (EN-22)

(1) is taken as one clause and (2) as two clauses. go and ask is regarded as an exponent of single P. This is, to some extent, similar to predicators in phase<sup>16</sup> in the sense that and is 'equivalent' to to. But at the same time go and ask is a single entity for contextual meaning. Thus it is different from (2). They may be distinguished phonologically: that is, if they are two clauses they will be spoken in two tone groups and if one in one tone group. (The presence of comma is an orthographic clue to this.) A recourse to contextual meaning may also be used as a test: that is, if it is possible to insert another element between the two verbal groups it is to be treated as two clauses. For instance, if the context 'allows' one to insert, say, quickly in (1)

... go quickly and ask the waiter ...

it will be two clauses.

3.1.1.4. The element A:

The adjunct, in most cases, is expounded by the adverbial group and is the most mobile of all the elements of clause structure. Consequently, it may not be possible to assign any fixed place to A. Nor is it possible to set up any theoretical limit the number of adjuncts in a clause.

Examples:

SPA The sun/ shone/ very brightly (EN-21)

ASP In recent years/ the doctrine/ has ... (EP-9)

It may even be inside another element:

SH[A] It/ is/ consistently/ developed ... (EP-9)

(All these positions of A are not absolutely free variations. Some of them may be accounted for by the system of theme. See 3.1.2.2.)

However, there are two sub-classes of the adverbial group, called the linker (L) and the binder (B), whose position is fairly fixed<sup>17</sup> and so is their number. The list of binders contains items like when, if, as soon as, which are quite common in dependent clauses, particularly in conditioning clauses. If they are present they occupy the first place in clause structure.

Examples:

When he had gone ... (EN-22)

As soon as the problem is stated ... (EP-20)

The list of linkers<sup>18</sup> contains items like and, but, so, which come initially in both independent and dependent clauses.

Examples:

ind. cl.: His silence now was painful, // and would have  
been patent to anyone else ... (EN-18)

dep. cl.: ... or that it is bound by moral relations  
(EP-14)

There may be two linkers but not two binders in a clause:

... and so he thought ...

If both the linker and the binder are present the former precedes the latter.

### 3.1.1.5. The element Z:

There are three kinds of Z.

i) What is commonly called vocative is recognized as Z since it is neither subject nor complement in the clause:

SPCZ She/'s/ spoilt, / Mr. de Winter (EN-19)

ii) The nominal group which fuses the functions of both S and C is an exponent of Z:

SPZP I/ expected/ him/ to laugh (EN-29)

Here him may be regarded in terms of the generally accepted contextual meaning of S and C as C to the first P and S to the second.

iii) Nominal groups which operate in the structure of minor clauses are regarded as exponents of Z (since no P is present.) As said earlier, S and C are identified with reference to P and so in minor clauses they cannot be identified. For instance -

Z No signature, and no beginning (EN-22)

Z Antecedents of collectivist Socialism (EP-40)

### 3.1.2. Systems carried by the clause:

For systems at the clause rank it is necessary to distinguish clauses on the basis of the presence or absence of P. Clauses with P are major clauses and those without P are minor clauses.

Major cl.: SPC ... it/ignores/the fact ... (EP-22)

Minor cl.: A Rather like the Eastern slave market (EN-25)

Systems of the clause are carried by major clauses only. For the systems of Theme, Transitivity and Phase the distinction between clause classes "independent" and "dependent" may be ignored but the system of Mood is applicable only to independent clauses operating at  $\wedge$  in sentence structure.



### 3.1.2.1. Mood:

It is "a three-term system, according to the arrangement of S and P."<sup>19</sup>

Terms	Structure	Examples
Affirmative	SP	The State exists (for individuals) (EP-18)
Interrogative	P[S]	Shall we go (home)? (EN-31)
	PS	Is there (an answer) (EN-22)
Imperative	P	Bring (it down to me right away) (EN-15)

It may be noted that these terms (Affirmative, Interrogative and Imperative) correspond fairly closely to contextual types of sentences (Statement, Question and Command.) Minor clauses, of course, are quite common as Responses. But this correspondence is by no means absolute: for example what is classified as an affirmative clause may be a question because of the rising intonation, indicated by a question mark in orthography.

Example:

AS P A A    Then / you / have been / here / before?    (EN-32)

### 3.1.2.2. Theme:

"The theme of a clause, then, is the first element in it that appears from choice."<sup>20</sup> The system has two terms - usual

and marked. The normal sequence of elements of clause structure is S P C A. And this is regarded as usual theme. If an element other than S (or P according to Mood) comes initially in clause structure it is called marked theme. Binders and linkers are excluded from this system because, if present, they must come initially in clause structure. Other linkers (e.g. therefore) are so mobile in the clause that their occurrence in any particular position is not as worthy of note as the elements S, P, C and lexical Adjuncts.

Terms	Initial element	Examples
Usual	S	... <u>individuals</u> do not exist for the State (EP-18)
	P	<u>Leave</u> that (EN-24)
		Is she a relation? (EN-25)
Marked	C	<u>Eggs</u> I like
	A	<u>The morning after the bridge party</u> Mrs. Van Hopper woke ... (EN-23)

Clauses with C initial and A initial may be called C-thematic and A-thematic respectively.

### 3.1.2.3. Transitivity:

Transitivity is related to the choice of C: clauses with C (+C) are transitive and those without C (-C) are intransitive. Transitive clauses may be divided into single (one C) and double (two C) transitive.

Examples:

Intransitive:

SP I / sighed (EN-22)

SPA The State / cannot act / unrepresentatively (EP-13)

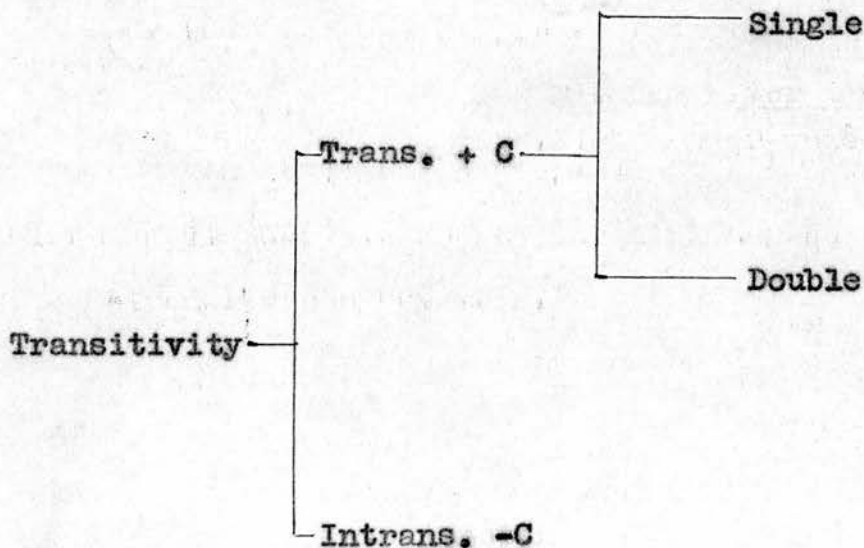
Transitive:

Single: SPC ... moral relations / imply / two parties (EP-14)

Double: SPCG They / have given / you / a good room (EN-20)

SPCC I / left / her / quite happy (EN-23)

Diagrammatically:



3.1.2.4. Phase:

Phase accounts for the selection of more than one predicator in a clause. Clauses are in single phase if they have one P and in multiple phase if they have more than one P.

Examples:

Single phase: S P C it/ takes/ the view (EP-19)

SPC      She / left / it      (EN-20)

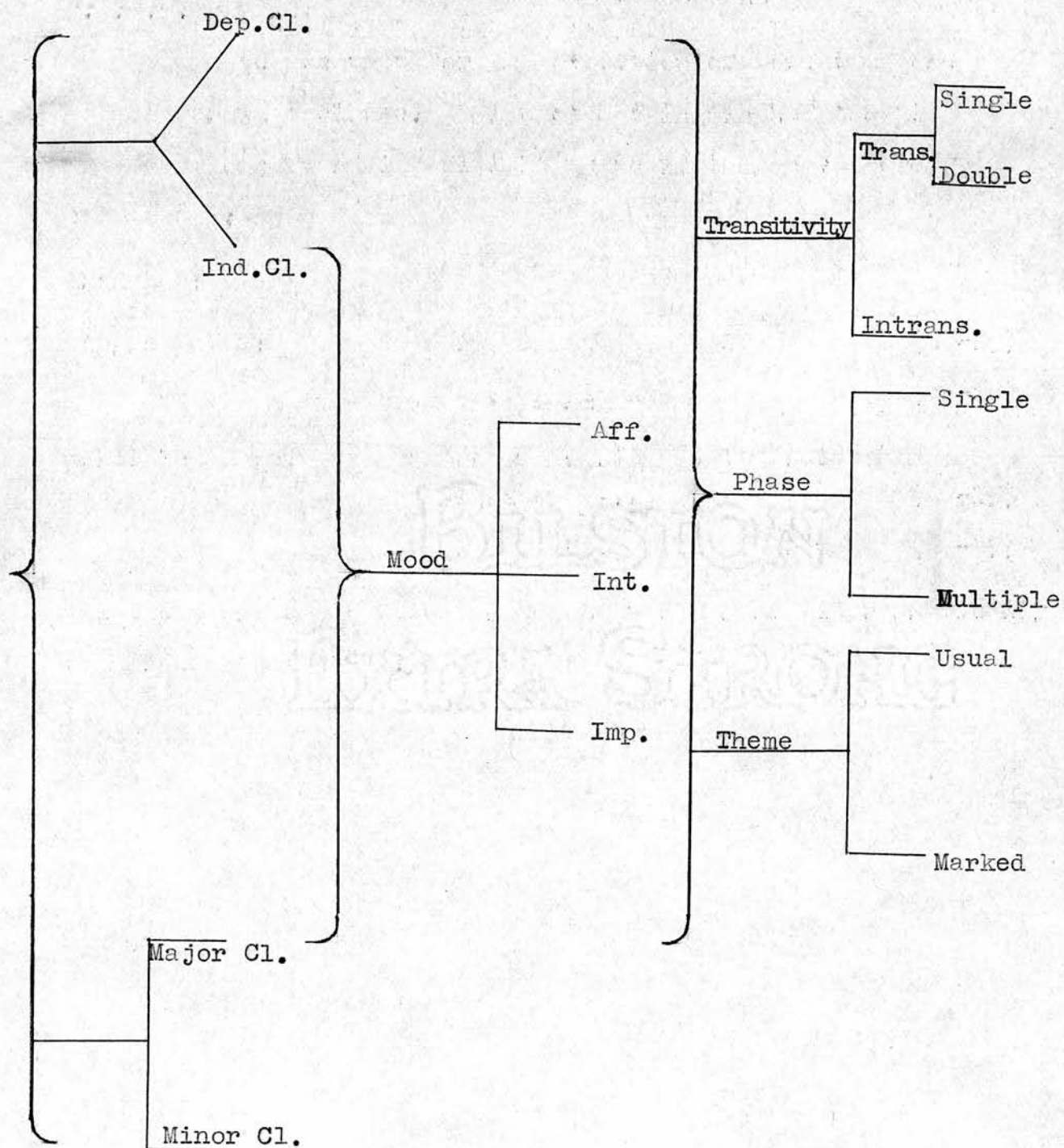
Multiple phase: SP PC She/had wished/ to finish/  
luncheon ... (EN-15)

luncheon ...

SP ZP I / expected / him / to laugh (EN-29)

All these systems carried by the clause may be diagrammatically summarized as follows:





### 3.2. The Clause in Hindi

### 3.2.1. Elements of structure:

Primary elements of clause structure are S(ubject), O(bject), A(djunct) and P(redictor). As in English so in Hindi S and O are expounded by the nominal group,<sup>21</sup> A and P by the adverbial group and the verbal group respectively.

Examples:

SOAP veh/beyre ko/epne pas/bulati? (HN-2)  
(She would summon the waiter to her side.)

SOAP unhone/unhẽ/us rup mē/nehĩ ṣgi:kar kiya hey (HP-8)  
(They have not accepted them in that form.)

Besides these four elements another element Z is also needed when S and O cannot be identified. Z is expounded by the nominal group and is neither S nor O.

Examples:

Z petli: lecekdar kemer, beṛi:beṛi: ṣkhe (HN-6)  
(little slim waist, big-big eyes)

Z sidhḁhāt ka vivraṇ (HP-3)  
(Statement of the Theory)

This problem arises particularly in minor clauses and in case of vocatives. (See 3.2.1.5.)

3.2.1.1. The element S:

Although because of its mobility S cannot be identified on the basis of its position normally<sup>22</sup> it is the first element in clause structure. And in transitive<sup>23</sup> clauses it usually precedes O.

Examples: (S is underlined)

SOAP ek chokre ne / unhē / is sthiti se / ubara (HN-9)  
(a page-boy saved him from this situation)

SP unhone / kaha (HN-18)  
(He said)

For the identification of S the following criteria are used:

i) The nominal group at S, in the ergative case,<sup>24</sup> is marked by the presence of the postposition ne:

Examples:

SP hegel ne / likha hey (HP-9)  
(Hegel has written)

SOP māyane / māynderle ki: tāsivrē / dekhi: hōy (HN-7)  
(I have seen pictures of Manderley)

ii) The nominal group at S and the verbal group at P enter into a selection relation: that is, they mutually determine the form of each other. For instance, the perfect verbal group (See 6.2.2.1.1.1.) selects the ergative nominal group (+ ne) at S and the nonperfect verbal group (See 6.2.2.1.1.1.) selects the direct nominal group (- ne) at S. In other words, the direct nominal group at S selects the imperfect verbal group and the ergative nominal group selects the perfect verbal group.



Examples:

Ergative Ngp      Perfect Vgp:

S P      mōyne/ sun rekhkha tha      (HN-20)  
(I had heard)

Direct Ngp      Imperfect Vgp:

S P      eyristewtle is kethen se arembh kerta hey-  
(HP-2)  
(Aristotle begins with the statement)

This selection relation is different from concord (see below).

iii) If the exponent of S is in the direct case it is in concord with the verbal group.

Example:

S A P    khēt/mez ki: deraz mē/ mil गया      (HN-5)  
(The letter was found in the drawer of the desk.)

Here the exponent of S khēt is in the direct case - that is, it is not marked by the postposition ne. Consequently, it is in concord with the verbal group: khēt is masculine and so is the verbal group mil गया. A feminine nominal group will have a feminine verbal group. For instance, if khēt is replaced by ciṭṭhi which is feminine the verbal group will also change to the feminine verbal group mil गई:

ciṭṭhi/ mez ki: deraz mē/ mil गई  
(The letter was found in the drawer of the desk.)

(Incidentally, both khēt and ciṭṭhi mean letter; the former is masculine, the latter feminine.)



For instance -

SOP mēyne/ əpna kam/ kiya  
(I did my work.)

Here the exponent of S being in the ergative case, the concordial relation (of gender) is between S and P. That is, a change at O (from masculine to feminine) will bring a corresponding change in the verbal group.

SOP mēyne/ əpni: pəṛhai: / ki:  
(I did my studies)

It is important to note that this concordial relation makes O considerably different from its English counterpart C. Hence different names - "object" in Hindi and "complement" in English.

The number of objects in a clause is two and they may be distinguished as extensive object ( $O^e$ ) and intensive object ( $O^i$ ). The criteria for their distinctions are as follows:

i) The presence of ko is possible only in  $O^e$  and not in  $O^i$ :

AA  $SO^eP$  isse pehle/ ki/ becara agentuk/ khetre ko/ bhāp seke  
(HN-3)

(Before the newcomer could feel the danger)

$SO^iP$  ... yeh/ avajyēk/ hojata hey (HP-12)  
(It becomes necessary)

ii)  $O^e$  may be replaced by pronouns like ise (this/it), mujhe (me), use (him) ...<sup>27</sup>

$SO^eP$  ham/ is kethen ko/ svikar kar sakte hōy (HP-10)  
(We can accept this statement)

That is, is kethen ko may be replaced by ise (it)

həm/ise/svikar kər sək̤te h̥əy

(We can accept it)

iii) Nominal groups at  $O^e$  are noun-head nominal groups whereas at  $O^i$  they are adjective-head nominal groups.

iv) Contextually, S and  $O^i$  have the same referent whereas  $O^e$  has a different one.

There may be rankshifted clauses at O:

... həm/[[brij khelne]/bəy̯t̪h jaŋge

(HN-11)

(We will sit to play bridge)

### 3.2.2.1.3. The element P:

The verbal group at P is either finite or non-finite:

finite vgp:

SOAP yyekti/əpne ədhikar̥ō ko/rajye se/prapt kerta həy

(HP-5)

(The individual receives his rights from the State.)

Non-finite verbal groups are of three types: those ending in ker, in hua/hue/hui or in na.

Examples:

AP fewren/ aker ... (Conjunctival) (HN-12)  
(Having arrived soon)

AP uper/ dekhte hue ... (participial) (HN-13)  
(seeing above)

AP əb/ lewna (Infinitival)<sup>28</sup>



In a normal sequence of elements of clause structure P comes finally but it may occupy other places as well. For instance -

(P is underlined)

O P S    ek bhəyanək durgəṭna / this / vəh                                 (HN-24)  
             (An appalling tragedy was it)

It may even be included in another element:

O[P]    bəɽiː kɾipa/həy/apkiː                                 (HN-14)  
            (It is very kind of you)

There cannot be more than one P in a clause.

3.2.1.4. The element A:

The adjunct, in most cases, is expounded by the adverbial group. Occasionally, it may be expounded by the nominal group as well. For instance -

AA SA P    kel / jaed / mōy / səwspel / jaŋga                      (HN-9)  
                (Perhaps tomorrow I will go sospel)

Thus as in English so in Hindi cross-exponence is recognized.

In Hindi clause structure sequence (or position) is not a dependable criterion for any element, least of all A.

However, its position between O and P seems more usual:

SOAP unhone/unhẽ/ us rup mẽ/nahĩ ĩgikar kiya hey  
(HP-8)

(They have not accepted them in that form)

The positions of linkers (L) and binders (B), two subclasses of the adverbial group operating at A, are, to some

extent, fixed. They come initially in clause structure.

Examples:

L əwr /yēh sakh vyevestha/ rajye ki: parəspərik  
nirbharta/ sidhdh kerti: həy (HP-13)  
(And this system of credit proves the interdependence  
of States.)

B jəb mōy ləwti: ... (HN-5)  
(When I returned)

If both L and B are present in a clause the former precedes  
the latter:

LB isliye / jəb / voh agentuk/ khəṛa hi: rəha (HN-6)  
(So when the newcomer remained standing)

There may also be two linkers in a clause:

LL əwr / isliye / mōy / nəhī ja səkūga  
(and therefore I couldn't go)

Not all linkers have a fixed position; some of them like isliye  
(therefore), təb (then) come elsewhere as well.

SA<sup>L</sup>P unhone / təb / kəha  
(He then said)

Linkers may, therefore, be distinguished on the basis of this  
fixed position.<sup>29</sup> Binders, too, need not always be initial:

AA<sup>B</sup> SP egle din səbēh / jəb / srimeti: həwpər / jagī: ... (HN-12)  
(The next morning when Mrs. Hopper woke)

Other adjuncts are usually marked by the presence of post-  
positions like mē, se, per.

Examples:

ASOP ... sundarta mē / voh / əpna sanī: / nəhī rəkhta (HN-7)  
(in beauty it has no match)

ASP ... unper/ iska kya eser/ perā hey (HN-9)  
(what influence has it on him)

There is no theoretical limit to the number of adjuncts in a clause.

### 3.2.1.5. The element Z:

As said earlier Z is expounded by the nominal group and is neither S nor O. There are two kinds of Z:

- i) What is commonly called vocatives is taken as Z.<sup>30</sup>

For instance -

ASOPZ iske sath/ yehi: to/ perijani: / hey/ mister  
de winter (HN-8)  
(This is the trouble with her, Mr. de Winter)

Z is also recognized in the following clause:

SOPZ veh/ mayks de winter/ hōy, / maynderle ke svami:  
(HN-3)  
(It is Max de Winter, the owner of Manderley)

Perhaps a word for word translation would be more helpful in the present example:

(He Max de Winter is, the owner of Manderley)

ii) In minor clauses it is not always possible to identify S or O and hence in such situations Z is recognized. For instance -

Z dhūdhli: ēkhe, ūcā: nak, ghrinayukt uperi: hōṭh  
(HN-11)  
(A sombre eye, a high bridged nose, a scornful upper lip)

In minor clauses Z is recognized only when nominal groups are not marked by the presence of postpositions ne or ko. With these postpositions they are clearly either S or O. (See 3.2.1.1. and 3.2.1.2.)

### 3.2.2. Systems:

As in English so in Hindi systems of the clause are carried by major clauses only. The system of mood is applicable only to independent clauses whereas all others to both independent and dependent clauses.

#### 3.2.2.1. Mood:

There are three terms in the system of mood:

- i) Imperative
- ii) Interrogative
- iii) Affirmative

#### 1) Imperative clauses:

In imperative clauses predicators are expounded by imperative verbal groups. Imperative verbal groups are divided as honorific and non-honorific.

Honorific:	<u>jaive</u>	
	(please go)	(polite form)
Non-honorific:	jao	
	(go)	



Examples (imperative clauses):

OAP use/fewrən/leao (HM-4)  
(Bring it right away)

A O O P    unke bare mē / mujhe bhī : to / kuth / betao  
 (Tell me something about him)

(HN-16)

It is important to note that the basis of the classification of imperative clauses is the (imperative) verbal group and not the absence of S. Though S is usually absent it is occasionally present as in the following:

S A P    tum / idher / nikel ao                      (HN-13)  
             (you come around this way)

Since the exponents of S and P enter into a selection relation and therefore mutually determine the form of each other the choice of the imperative verbal group gives one and only one possibility of S: tum (you) in case of non-honorific and ap (polite form of you) in case of honorific. In imperative clauses the absence of S is certainly very common but not the defining criterion.

ii) Interrogative clauses:

Interrogative clauses are marked by the presence of k-items (like kawn, kya, kehā, kisne) at S, O, A.

Examples:

SOP    tum/kya/ soc rehi ho                                         (HN-18)  
            (What are you thinking)

OOAPS tumhē / yeh newkri: kərne ki: selah / akhir /  
 di: / kisne (HN-9)  
 (After all who advised you to do this job)

AS OP ... kya/ rajye ka apne sedasyō ke sath sambōdh  
ka prajñ/ isse mūl tēh bhinn/ hēy (HP-10)  
(Is the question of the relationship of the  
State to its members basically different?)

iii) Affirmative clauses:

Affirmative clauses are neutral and may be defined  
negatively as those which are neither imperative nor  
interrogative.

Examples:

SA OP misṭer de winter/ hemare sath/ kəwfi/ piēge  
(HN-5)  
(Mr. de Winter will have coffee with us.)

AS OP ... darjnik pekch mē/yeh sidhdhāt/ etyōt hi:  
mahatvapurn/ hēy (HP-1)  
(This theory is very important on the  
philosophical side.)

These terms (imperative, interrogative and affirmative)  
not only correspond very closely<sup>31</sup> to contextual classes of  
sentences (command, question and statement) but, in fact, are  
very relevant to their classification. Let us take the  
following examples:

(1)  $\alpha\beta$  kya mēy jan sekta hū // ki tum kəwn ho?  
(May I know who you are?)

(2)  $\alpha\beta$  mēyne pucha // ki voh kəwn tha  
(I asked who he was)

(1) is a question and (2) a statement. This classification,  
in both cases, is because of  $\alpha$  and largely irrespective of  $\beta$ .  
In Hindi, as said earlier, the presence of k-item (at S, O, A)

defines an interrogative clause. But the presence of the k-item (kəwn at 0) in the dependent clause in (2) does not make (2) a question. It is desirable, therefore, to restrict the system of mood to independent clauses only. Thus Verma's suggestion to apply the system of mood to what he calls sequential clauses which, at an earlier stage in delicacy, would be dependent clauses does not sound very attractive. In this account of Hindi grammar, therefore, the system of mood is restricted to independent clauses only.

### 3.2.2.2. Aspect:

There are two terms in this system: perfect and non-perfect. The system is applicable to clauses containing finite verbal groups only and is based on the mutual determination of the exponents of S and P. A perfect clause has an ergative nominal group at S and a perfect verbal group at P; a non-perfect clause has a direct nominal group at S and a non-perfect verbal group at P.<sup>32</sup>

Terms	Exp. of S	Exp. of P	Examples
Perfect	Ergative Ngp + <u>ne</u>	Perfect Vgp	SP hegel ne / likha hey (HP-8) (Hegel has written)
Non-perfect	Direct Ngp	Non-perfect Vgp	SP mōy socti: hū: (HN-3) (I think)



### 3.2.2.3. Transitivity:

The system of transitivity has two terms: transitive and intransitive. Transitive clauses are marked by the presence of Object (+ O) and intransitive clauses by the absence of Object (- O).

Terms	Structure	Examples
Transitive + O	SOP	mōyne/ mēynderle ki: tēsvirē/ dekhī: hōy (HN-7) (I have seen pictures of Manderley)
Intransitive - O	SP	nērs/ agēi: (HN-12) (The nurse came)

As in English so in Hindi transitive clauses may be either single or double - i.e. containing one object or two objects.

### 3.2.2.4. Concord:

In subjectival clauses the exponent of S enters into the relation of concord with the verbal group. In objectival clauses the exponent of O is in concord with the verbal group. This happens if the nominal group at S is in the ergative case (+ ne).

Terms	Concord	Examples
Subjectival	S $\longleftrightarrow$ P	SOP beyra/ mēz/ saf kēr dega (HN-14) (The waiter will clean the table.)
		SOP hem/ is kethen ko/ svi: kar kēr sēkte hōy (HP-10) (We can accept the view)
Objectival	O $\longleftrightarrow$ P	SOP apne/ koī: ēsēbhyēta/ nēhī dīkhai: (HN-14) (you didn't show any rudeness)



If, however, both the exponents of S and O are marked by the presence of postpositions (ne and ko respectively) the verbal group does not have any concordial relation with either of them. For instance -

SOAP srimeti: hawper ne/ epni: aynak ko/ ek jhetke  
ke sath/ b3d ker diya/ (HN-3)  
(Mrs. Hopper folded her lorgnette with a snap)

### 3.2.2.5. Theme and Emphasis:

Although the sequence of elements of clause structure is more variable in Hindi than in English the sequence SOAP may be taken as the normal unmarked one. To account for changes from this sequence two systems theme and emphasis are needed.

The first position is the place for 'theme': that is, a clause is thematically marked if an element other than S comes initially in Clause structure. For instance -

#### Theme:

Unmarked: SOP m3yne/ lifafa/ le liya (HN-11)  
(I took the envelope)  
Marked: OPS lifafa/ le liya/ m3yne  
(The envelope took I)

The clause may be called O-thematic or has an O-theme. It is to be noted that in an O-thematic clause the normal sequence is OPS: that is, P occupies the second position. If, however,

in an O-thematic clause an element other than P occupies the second position the clause then is also emphatically marked. For instance -

OSP lifafa/ mšyne/ le liya  
(The envelope I took)

In this O-thematic clause S (and not P) occupies the second position and hence the clause is emphatically marked too. Theme accounts for changes in the first position and emphasis in the second. It is possible to keep one constant and vary the other.

Examples:

Theme:

Unmarked: SOP mšyne/ lifafa/ le liya  
(I the envelope took)

Marked: OPS lifafa/ le liya/ mšyne  
(The envelope took I)

The clause has O-theme but is emphatically unmarked. The fact that P occupies the second position and not the third (as in an unmarked clause) is not to be taken as an example of an emphatically marked clause because this is a consequence of O-theme.

Emphasis:

Unmarked: SOP mšyne/ lifafa/ le liya  
(I the envelope took)

Marked: SPO mšyne/ le liya/ lifafa  
(I took the envelope)

This clause is thematically unmarked but emphatically marked

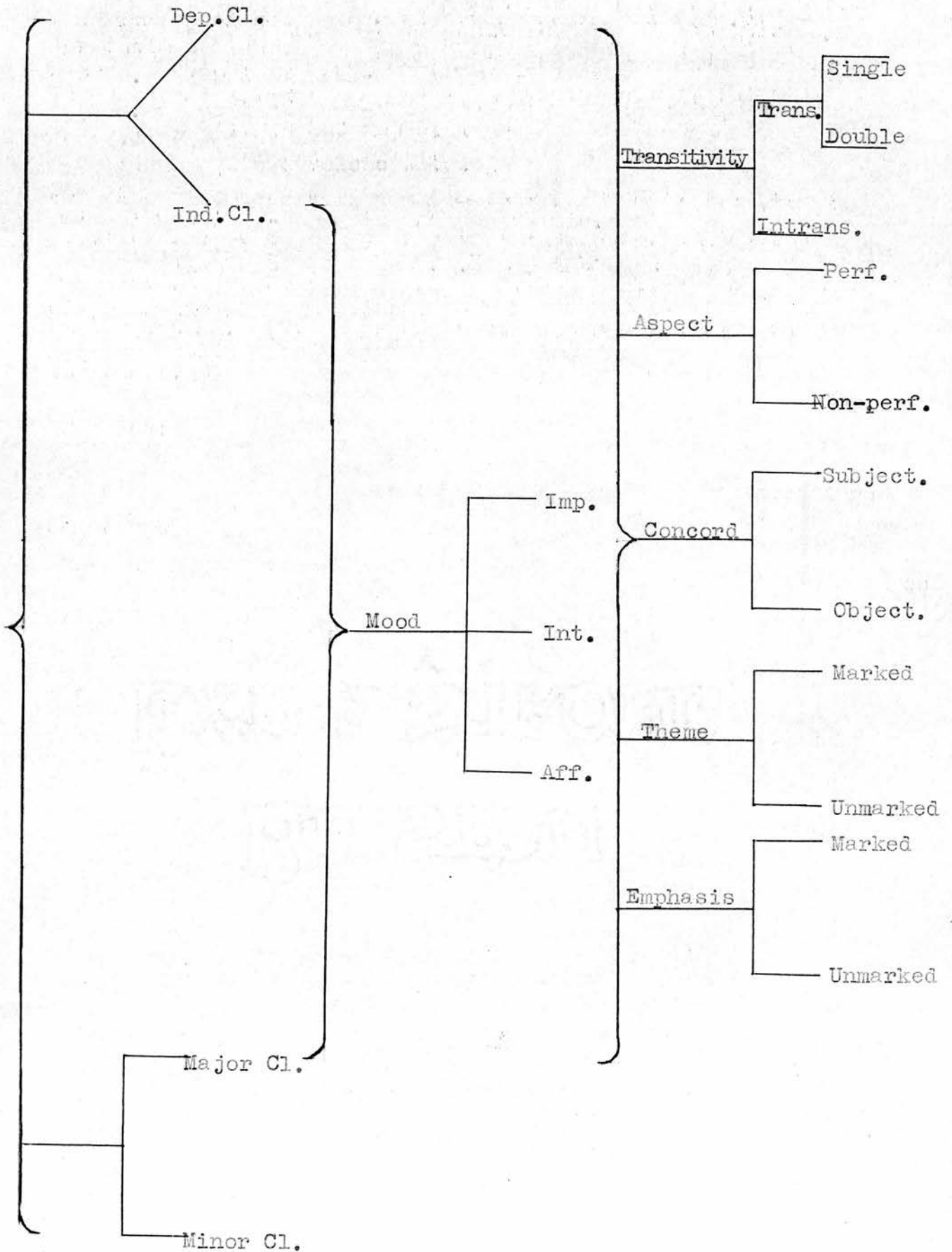
because P (and not O) occupies the second position.

A clause may be both thematically and emphatically marked. For instance -

OSP lifafa/mšyne/le liya  
(The envelope I took)

This clause is O-thematic and S-emphatic.

All these systems carried by the clause may be diagrammatically summarized:





### 3.3. Comparisons: the Clause

### 3.3.o. Minor Clauses:

The comparison in the following pages is systemic: that is, a comparison of secondary classes of the clause - both "independent" and "dependent". For this reason it is necessary to deal with minor clauses first since they are outside any system. While considering minor clauses the distinction between clause classes ("independent" and "dependent") has been ignored.

Their figures in the texts are as follows:

Text		Minor clauses	Total No. of Cls.
N	EN	62 (5.5%)	1122
	HN	30 (2.6%)	1325
P	EP	28 (2.5%)	1109
	HP	25 (1.5%)	1659

Although the percentage in all the four texts is not very significant it is to be noted that the percentage in the Hindi texts has gone down. There are, in the main, two reasons for this.

1) Sentences consisting only of minor clauses are rather unlikely in Hindi and are certainly not as frequent as in English. Consequently, such sentences have been translated as sentences consisting of major clause(s). The following examples are given by way of illustrations:

This with a provocative glance and a gleam of teeth.

(EN-17)

This has been translated as -

ye jəbd sriməti: həwper ne agštuk ki: or uttejna pəyda  
kərnevali: nigah se dekhkər əpne datō ko eəmakte hue kəhe

(HN-6)

(Mrs. Hopper said these words with a provocative glance  
and a gleam of teeth.)

Another example:

No signature, and no beginning. (EN-22)

This has been translated as:

ne koi: sēbodhen thā əwr ne hestakcher (HN-11)

(There was no beginning, nor signature)

Because of this such sentences are also translated along with  
other sentence(s). For instance -

Rather like the Eastern slave market (EN-25)

This sentence has been translated along with the preceding  
sentence.

yeh to bəhut hi: purane jəmane ki: bat həy, jəy se  
das-pretha (HN-15)

(It sounds a primitive idea, like the slave market)

ii) Since in Hindi there is no choice of minor additioning  
clauses minor additioning clauses in English are translated as  
major clauses. This point has already been discussed in the  
preceding chapter. (See 2.3.3.2.3.1.)

Most of the minor clauses in the political text are  
examples of section headings, which have been translated as such  
in Hindi as well.

Examples:

Origins of the Absolutist Theory (EP-10)

nirēkujstavadi: sidhāhāt ke srot. (HP-2)

(Origins of the absolutist theory)

Occasionally, there have also been structural changes in translation:

Z associations of individuals for economic purposes and  
associations of individuals for ethical purposes (EP-20)

This clause has been translated as having structure A:

A arthik uddeśyō ke liye tetha nēytik uddeśyō ke liye (HP-12)  
(for economic purposes and for ethical purposes)

3.3.1. Mood:<sup>33</sup>

The figures in the texts are as follows:<sup>34</sup>

Text	Affirmative	Interrogative	Imperative	Total
EN	526 91.8%	30 4.8%	20 3.4%	576
HN	595 92.2%	32 4.9%	19 2.9%	646

Obviously, there is a very close correspondence here and, as expected, most of interrogative and imperative clauses have corresponding translation-equivalents. The occasional lack of correspondence may be explained with the help of the following two examples:



you can't sit at a wet tablecloth (EN-24)

This (affirmative) clause has been translated as an interrogative clause:

bhigi hui: mez per khana keyse khaogi: (HN-13)  
(How can you eat on a wet table)

The second example is the other way round: that is, an interrogative clause translated as an affirmative clause:

Wouldn't that rather defeat the purpose? (EN-19)

Its translation-equivalent is -

vah, teb to mewnɿ: karlo ka vah khurb meza luɿti: (HN-8)  
(O, then she would have enjoyed Monte Carlo a lot.)

It would be interesting to see the extent to which they correspond with contextual types of sentences. This correspondence is examined only in case of Question and Command on the one hand and Imperative and Interrogative on the other.

Text	Question/interrogative		Command/imperative	
	Question	Interrogative	Command	Imperative
EN	36	30	13	20
HN	40	32	15	19

#### Question/interrogative:

The difference between the two is not much: that is, only six sentences, classified as questions, do not contain any interrogative clauses. (Needless to say that all sentences containing interrogative clauses are questions.) The classification of these six sentences is on the phonological

(or rather orthographic) criterion. The same applies to the eight Hindi sentences.

Examples:

your valet has unpacked for you, I suppose? (EN-20)

Then you have been here before? (EN-32)

Their translation-equivalents also do not contain any interrogative clauses but have been classified as questions on the orthographic basis:

mere khyal se tumhare newker ne tumhara saman thik se  
lega diya hoga? (HN-8)

(I think your valet must have put things in order?)

to ap yehā pehle bhī acuke hōy? (HN-22)

(Then you have been here before?)

The following is an example of an interrogative clause translated as an affirmative clause with a question mark:

Is there an answer? (EN-22)

koī jēbab to nahī hēy? (HN-11)

(There isn't any answer?)

In this clause there is no K-item which has been recognized as a mark of interrogative clauses. However, such examples are rare - very rare indeed.

#### Command/imperative:

Here again there is a very close correspondence but the number of imperative clauses has turned out to be more than that of command. This is because one sentence may consist of more than one imperative clauses:

Leave that// and lay another place at my table

(EN-24)

One sentence, a command, consists of two imperative clauses. This is true of the Hindi text as well. In fact, the translation-equivalent of this sentence consists of two imperative clauses:

use choṛ do // ēwr meri: hi: mez per dursra khana bhi:  
lega do (HN-13)  
(Leave that and lay another place at my table.)

This feature accounts for the fact that the number of imperative clauses has gone up in the texts.<sup>35</sup>

There have also been occasional instances of discrepancy: that is, an affirmative clause translated as an imperative clause or vice versa. For instance -

You must come and have a drink some time in the suite  
(EN-20)

This (affirmative) clause has been translated as an imperative clause:

kisi: din mere kēnre mē akēr cāe piyo (HN-9)  
(Come and have tea some time in my room)

The following clause has been translated as an affirmative clause:

Don't let me keep you (EN-20)  
ēb mēy apko nēhī rokū ga (HN-9)  
(Now I won't detain you any longer)

Perhaps these discrepancies are not absolutely arbitrary; contextually, the first example seems quite close to a command and the second to a statement.

### 3.3.2. Transitivity:

The figures of transitive and intransitive clauses are presented in the following table:

Text		Transitive	Intransitive	Total
N	EN	514 (48.6%)	546 (51.4%)	1060
	HN	722 (55.7%)	573 (44.3%)	1295
P	EP	598 (55.3%)	483 (44.7%)	1081
	HP	985 (60.2%)	649 (39.8%)	1634

In terms of percentage EN displays very little difference (that of 2% only) between transitive and intransitive clauses whereas all other texts show a difference of at least 10%. (20% in HP) From the point of view of translation, on the other hand, the difference between the English and the Hindi texts is not very striking though the percentage of transitive clauses in the latter has gone up a little; the difference in N is about 7% and in P 5%. It means that in spite of a high degree of correspondence some intransitive clauses have been translated as transitive clauses both in HN and HP.

In order to consider this point it would be worthwhile looking at some of the examples where such a thing has happened: that is, an intransitive clause translated as a transitive clause.



Examples:

- (1) SPA I / thought / of that picture postcard (EN-25)
- (2) SOP mujhe / us postkad ka dhyan / ho aya (HN-15)  
(I remembered that postcard)
- (3) SPA I / thought / of the cobbled square in Monaco (EN-27)
- (4) SOP mujhe / ek prakritik esthel ka dhyan / ho aya (HN-18)  
(I remembered a spot of nature)
- (5) SPA We hold, on the contrary (EP-21)
- (6) ASOP iske pretikul / yah vicar / manye / hey (HP-13)  
(On the contrary this idea is acceptable)

(1), (3), (5) are intransitive clauses whereas their translation-equivalents (2), (4), (6) are transitive clauses. These are some of the examples chosen to illustrate this difference, which is mainly due to the verbal group - rather the lexical verb. In Hindi some of the verbal groups are marked by what has traditionally been called "the nominal compound" and in that case they may, in certain cases, operate at 0 in clause structure. The translation-equivalents of items like remember, (sometimes) think, accept are typical instances of this kind.

The next step would be to divide transitive clauses into single (transitive clauses) and double (transitive clauses):

Text		Single	Double	Total
N	EN	491 (95.4%)	23 (4.6%)	514
	HN	675 (93.5%)	47 (6.5%)	722
P	EP	566 (94.4%)	32 (5.6%)	598
	HP	917 (93.1%)	68 (6.9%)	985

The percentage of double transitive clauses is very low in all the four texts - a slight increase in the Hindi ones. This slight increase is to be attributed to "nominals" as translation-equivalents of certain lexical verbs.

Examples:

SPC      This newcomer / would not welcome / intrusion  
(EN-15)

SOOP    kisi: epericit ka is tereh bice me aparna/  
agstuk ko / echcha / nahie legega (HN-5)  
(This intrusion would not appear good to the  
newcomer)

As is clear from this example the lexical verb welcome has been translated as echcha lagna (to appear good). With the item echcha (good) operating at 0 the Hindi clause is a double transitive clause whereas the English one is a single transitive clause.

Double transitive clauses are further divided on the basis of intensive and extensive complements/objects. The following table gives the figures of those double transitive clauses which contain both intensive and extensive complements/objects and those which contain only extensive complements/objects:

Text		intensive + extensive	extensive only	Total
N	EN	10 (43.5%)	13 (56.5%)	23
	HN	16 (43.3%)	21 (56.7%)	37
P	EP	14 (43.8%)	18 (56.2%)	32
	HP	29 (46.1%)	34 (53.9%)	63

Rankshifted clauses operating at 0 are not included in these figures.

Single transitive clauses are also divided on the basis of intensive and extensive complements/objects and their figures<sup>36</sup> are given in the following table:

Text		C <sup>e</sup> /O <sup>e</sup>	C <sup>i</sup> /O <sup>i</sup>	Total
N	E N	403 (82.3%)	85 (18.7%)	488
	H N	538 (81.4%)	101 (18.6%)	639
P	E P	468 (83.4%)	93 (16.6%)	561
	H P	633 (71.9%)	248 (28.1%)	881

Except in HP the percentage of C<sup>e</sup>/O<sup>e</sup> (or C<sup>i</sup>/O<sup>i</sup>) is nearly the same in the texts. From the point of view of translation there is a very high degree of correspondence between the English and the Hindi texts: that is, extensive complements are translated as extensive objects and intensive complements as intensive objects. However, there have been a few instances of a lack of correspondence. For example -

SP [A] C<sup>e</sup> you / can't / possibly / lift / her (EN-23)

This has been translated as

SA O<sup>i</sup> P inko uṭhana beyṭhana /tumhare liye/ muṣkil/ hoga  
(HN-12)  
(To lift her would be difficult for you)

Here lift her has been translated as a rankshifted clause operating at S and P is expounded by the verb to be.

It has also been noticed that the translation-equivalent of an intransitive clause, if a transitive clause, may take an intensive object. For instance -

PA ... spelt / correctly (EN-22)

Its translation-equivalent is a transitive clause and has an O<sup>i</sup>:

SO<sup>i</sup> P ... uske hijje /bilkul ṭhik / the (HN-11)  
(Its spelling was absolutely correct)



What has happened is that the lexical verb spel has been translated as a nominal group operating at S. (There is no equivalent lexical verb in Hindi.)

There is a relatively big difference between EP and HP as far as transitive clauses with intensive complements/objects are concerned. (The number in HP has increased by about 10%)

The following examples are given as illustrations:

- (1) SP C<sup>e</sup> ... the theory / is / one of great importance on the philosophical side (EP-9)
- (2) AS O<sup>i</sup> P ... darjnik pekch mē / yeh sidhdhāt / etyēt hi: mahatvapurn / hey (HP-1)  
(In the philosophical side the theory is very important.)
- (3) SP C<sup>e</sup> ... the welfare of society and the State / has / neither meaning nor value ... (EP-18)
- (4) SA O<sup>i</sup> P samaj tetha rajye ka kalyan / us samay tek / nirarthek tetha nirmal / hey (HP-11)  
(The welfare of society and the State is meaningless and valueless till that time)

(1) and (3) contain extensive complements and their translation-equivalents (2) and (4) intensive objects. In both these cases noun-head<sup>37</sup> nominal groups have been translated as adjective-head<sup>37</sup> nominal groups. It is to be noted, however, that this change in the grammatical category is due to the fact that the lexical item in both cases is the same - important and importance, meaning and meaningless.

Let us now consider the following examples:

- (5) Even if the claim of the State to complete omnipotence in respect of its relations with its own citizens be admitted ... (EP-17)

- (6) yedi yeh svikar bhi: ker liya jae// ki apne sadasyo ke sambadh me rajya purnteh servjektifali: hey ... (HP-10)

(Even if it is accepted that the State is absolutely omnipotent in respect of its relations with its own citizens)

(5) has been translated as two clauses and the underlined adverbial group as a transitive clause with an intensive object -

purnteh servjektifali:  
(absolutely omnipotent)

It is again to be noted that the same lexical item will be abstracted from omnipotent and omnipotence. It is because of such cases that the percentage of intensive objects has increased in HP.

Some adverbial groups like the following have also been translated as transitive clauses with intensive objects.

Examples:

On the contrary ... (EN-17)

bat/bilkul ult: hey (HN-6)  
(The fact is completely opposite)

Obviously, clearly, evidently

yeh espejt/ saf hey  
(It is clear/evident/obvious)

Such examples are relatively more common in EP than in EN and it is for these reasons that the percentage of intensive objects has risen considerably in HP.

3.3.3. Theme:

The figures of usual theme and marked theme in the texts are as follows:

Text		Usual	Marked	Total
N	EN	981 (92.4%)	79 (7.6%)	1060
	HN	999 (77.2%)	296 (22.8%)	1295
P	EP	986 (91.3%)	95 (8.7%)	1081
	HP	1059 (64.9%)	575 (35.1%)	1634

By way of general remarks it can be said that the percentage of clauses with marked theme is considerably higher in the Hindi texts than in the English ones. It is also to be noted that the difference between the two English texts (EN and EP) is about 1% whereas in the two Hindi texts (HN and HP) is about 12%. At the same time the relative difference between EN and HN on the one hand and EP and HP on the other is also considerable -15% in the former and 26% in the latter.

It would be useful to mention at this point that corresponding to the system of theme in English two closely related systems theme and emphasis have been set up in Hindi.<sup>38</sup> But for the purpose of comparison the two systems have been conflated into one; the figures in the table above are figures of theme and emphasis taken together. (This has been considered desirable because of the "absence" of any corresponding system of emphasis in English. In Hindi changes due to emphasis

are no less marked than those due to theme. The structures are marked in both cases.) In any reference to a comparative study, therefore, theme in Hindi is to be taken as including emphasis.



## CHAPTER 4

### THE NOMINAL GROUP

#### 4.1. The nominal group in English

4.1.1 The nominal group in relation to elements of clause structure:

The nominal group operates at S, C, Z and occasionally at A.

Examples: (The relevant items are underlined)

- SP The nurse/ would give ... (EN-23)  
SPC A decision/ does not become/ my personal decision (EP-19)  
SPZP I/ want/ you / to accept ... (EN-28)  
SPA ... it / came / a little thick (EN-35)

4.1.2 Elements of structure:

The primary elements of the structure of the nominal group are modifier (m), head (h) and qualifier (q). h is obligatory and m and q are optional. Indeed they are identified with reference to h: m precedes and q follows h. With this inventory of elements all nominal groups can, at primary delicacy, be described as combinations of m, h and q. The following are the four possibilities:

- i) h fashions, you, me ...
- ii) mh the sting, a decision, very rude ...
- iii) hq he himself, men I have known ...
- iv) mhq the Kings of England, the fuss it would create

These elements are expounded by classes of the unit word<sup>1</sup> but the exponential relation between them is by no

means bi-unique: that is, one element is not always expounded by one and only one class and, conversely, one class does not always operate at one and only one element. The class "adjective", for instance, operates both at m and h.

Examples:

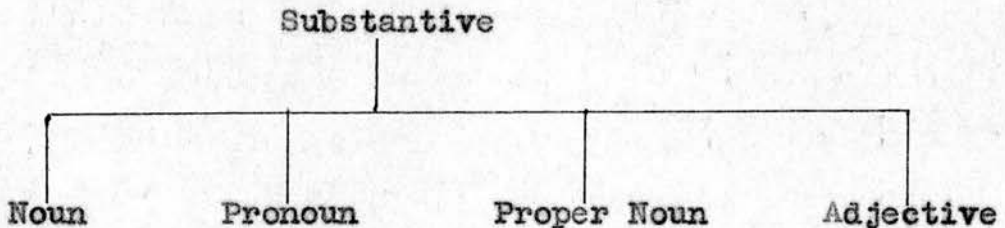
At m: a good room, a different view

at h: quite happy, very difficult

Each of these elements of nominal group structure will be discussed separately.

#### 4.1.2.1. The element h:

As said earlier h is an obligatory element and can constitute a nominal group by itself. It is expounded by the primary class "Substantive" of the unit word. Early in delicacy, substantives break down into four sub-classes:



Examples:

<u>Noun</u> h	<u>Fashions</u> / change	(EN-20)
<u>Pronoun</u> h	... <u>he</u> / gave ...	(EN-24)
<u>Proper Noun</u> h	<u>Mrs. Van Hopper</u> / woke	(EN-23)
<u>Adjective</u> h	... it / becomes / <u>clear</u>	(EP-18)



There may be more than one h in a list.

Examples:

His face /was / arresting, sensitive, medieval (EN-17)

You and I (EN-27)

There may also be clauses rankshifted to  $h^2$ .

Examples:

// To vindicate liberty of thought // / is ... (EP-15)

... the State /may do / // what it pleases // (EP-28)

// whatever you say // /will be ...

#### 4.1.2.2. The element q:

q follows h. Most of the items at q are rankshifted. The usual instances of rankshift at q are adverbial groups and clauses but there may also be nominal groups rankshifted to q. When words occur at q they are usually members of the word classes adjective and adverb.

Examples: (The relevant items are underlined)

Words at q:

something dreadful

brave enough

the man here

Rankshifted nominal groups at q:

ninety pounds a year

the room next door

Rankshifted adverbial groups at q:

a glimpse of his expression  
the principle of morality  
pictures of it

Rankshifted clauses at q:

... a picture postcard // I had bought once at a village shop // (EN-25)

your efforts // to monopolize the conversation // (EN-21)

Individualism // regarded as a social or political theory // (EP-24)

4.1.2.2.1. Listing and rankshift in depth at q:

q allows listing as well as rankshift in depth. In the following examples q's in list have been numbered.

Examples:

q<sub>1</sub>q<sub>2</sub> ... horror of the mob mind, of the tyranny of the crowd. (EP-27)

q<sub>1</sub>q<sub>2</sub> ... some phobia // that struggled to the surface of his mind // // and won supremacy // (EN-27)

q<sub>1</sub>q<sub>2</sub> ... a theory // which was popularized in England by T.H. Green // // and subsequently elaborated by the late Dr. Bosanquet // (EP-9)

There is no theoretical limit to their number and their relationship to h may be shown as

$$h : q_1 :: h : q_2$$

That is, each of them enters into a separate but similar relationship to h.

Examples of rankshift in depth at q: (the items at q are underlined)

the sound of that heart of yours (EN-23)

the claim to exemption from moral obligations (EP-17)

the main positions // adopted by those // who hold it // (EP-9)

The appearance of depth rankshift at q is just because a nominal group can be a component of a q. There may also be a "mixture" of clauses and adverbial groups at q.

Examples:

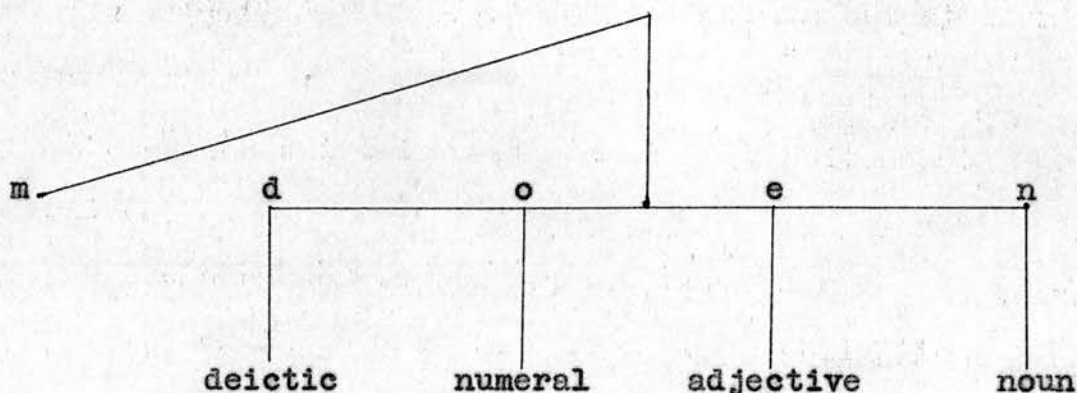
no other party besides the State // which is itself the sum of all parties // (EP-14)

the integration of social forces // caused by the pressure of population // (EP-33)

#### 4.1.2.3 The element m:

Early in delicacy, m breaks down into four secondary elements d, o, e and n yielding four secondary chain classes<sup>3</sup> deictic, numeral, adjective and noun respectively.

Diagrammatically:



Examples:

d her curiosity, the lift, this newcomer ...

o one hand, the first principle ...

e a good room, a halting sentence ...

n the philosopher Grotius, a village shop ...

d, o, e and n may all be present in one nominal group:

d o e n h those two beautiful village girls

Their sequence may be taken to be  $\overrightarrow{d o e n}$  (with arrow on top indicating direction.) "There is a fixed sequence of occurrence of d, o, e and n in the nominal group modifier."<sup>4</sup>

4.1.2.3.1. The element d:

The exponents to d are grammatical items like a, the, his ... together with genitival nominal groups like Mrs. Van Hopper's.



There is a system of "Range" at d with terms "General" and "Specific".

General: - a, any, another, several, some, both, all, no,  
neither, each, every.

Specific:- the, this, that, my, whose, what ( $\pm$  ever),  
which ( $\pm$  ever) ... and genetival nominal groups  
like Mr. de Winter's.

General deictics are either "total" or "partial" in their reference and thus "total" and "partial" are terms in the system of "coverage".

Total:- both, all, no, neither, each, every.

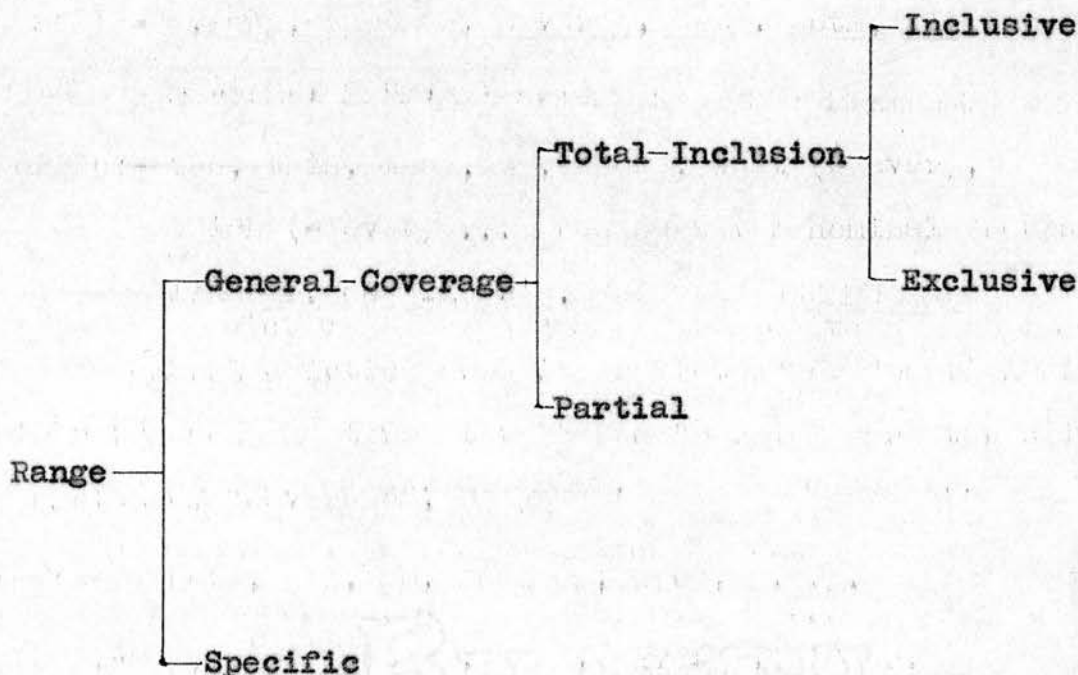
Partial:- a, any, another, some, several, either.

Total deictics may refer to a whole population by including all of it or excluding all of it. The system of "Inclusion" with terms "Inclusive" and "Exclusive" deals with this contrast.

Inclusive:- both all each every.

Exclusive:- neither no

All these systems at d may be diagrammatically summarized as follows:



4.1.2.3.2 The element o:

Numerals operate at o. Two positions  $o^a$  and  $o^b$  may be distinguished depending whether it is expounded by ordinals or cardinals.

Ordinals:- first, second, third ...

Cardinals:- one, two, three ...

Items like most, last are regarded as operating at  $o^a$  and those like several, many, few at  $o^b$ .

Examples:

$o^a$  the first week, the second line ...

$o^b$  one hand, two weeks ...

When  $o^a$  and  $o^b$  are present the former usually precedes the latter.

Examples:

$o^a o^b$  the first two months  
 $o^a o^b$  the last two weeks  
 $o^a o^b$  the next four months

#### 4.1.2.3.3. The element e:

What operates at  $e$  is the word class adjective which has lexical items like good, young, red ... as its members. They may be further sub-divided into three sub-classes operating at  $e^a$ ,  $e^b$  and  $e^c$ . These three sub-classes and also their positions are distinguished with reference to the sub-modifiers they take. (For sub-modifiers see the next section 4.1.2.3.3.1.)

The sub-class at  $e^a$  may be sub-modified by very, quite, rather, pretty, more, most, terribly, awfully etc.

Examples:

$e^a$  a (very) good room (EN-20)  
 $e^a$  my (rather) poor description (EN-26)  
the (most) characteristic statement (EP-24)

At  $e^b$  operate what are commonly called "colour" adjectives like red, green, blue. They may be submodified by items like royal, light, dark, deep.<sup>5</sup>

Examples:

e<sup>b</sup> his (deep) blue shirt

e<sup>b</sup> that (light) green shade

The submodifiers have a greater tendency to selectivity.

For instance \*royal yellow, \*olive blue etc. are not possible.

(The items marked with an asterisk are not possible.)

The third sub-class of adjectives operating at e<sup>c</sup> contains items like English, linguistic and verbal items such as sinking, broken.

Examples:

e<sup>c</sup> some English thinkers (EP-15)

e<sup>c</sup> a walled city (EN-17)

e<sup>c</sup> a crinkled chart (EN-31)

"Occasionally an adjective that we think of as a regular member of the class at e<sup>c</sup> will be found with a submodifier that shows it is an exponent of e<sup>a"6</sup> For instance -

very English taste

the most American person I have ever met

#### 4.1.2.3.3.1 The submodifier:

The submodifier, symbolized as  $\psi$ , may be regarded as a secondary element of nominal group structure. It is difficult to assign any fixed position to  $\psi$  though it usually precedes e and is, indeed, very relevant to the sub-classification of adjectives operating at e.  $\psi$  also seems



related to the element it submodifies rather than to any other element including h. The presence of some submodifiers, particularly so and too may change the sequence of d o e n.

Examples:

edh so beautiful a girl

edh too quick a decision

#### 4.1.2.3.4 The element n:

The element n is generally expounded by the class "noun" which operates at h.

Examples:

n a picture postcard (EN-25)

n a village shop (EN-25)

#### 4.2. The nominal group in Hindi

4.2.1 The nominal group in relation to elements of clause structure:

(As English) Nominal groups at S, O, Z.

Examples:

- S agōtuk ne / keha ... (HN-6)  
(The newcomer said.)
- O hem / is kethen ko / svi:kar ker sakte hōy (HP-10)  
(We can accept this statement.)
- Z veh / mēyks de wītōr hōy, / mēydarle ke svami: (HN-3)  
(He Max de Winter is, the owner of Manderley.)

4.2.2. Elements of Structure:

(As English) Primary elements m, h, q.

Examples:

- h goft (meat)  
unhone (he/she)  
rajye (State)
- mh in beyrō ko (these waiters)  
unki: batchit (their conversation)  
yehi: dharna (this view)
- hq tum khud (you yourself)
- mhq yeh beyra khud (this waiter himself)  
veh lerka // jo kel aya tha // (the boy who came yesterday.)





As is clear from this diagram he recognizes "noun" as primary class (of the unit word) operating at h. By increase in delicacy nouns break down into secondary classes. But nowhere in this classification comes what is commonly called "adjective". The possibility of adjectives operating at h, it seems, has been ruled out. But, in fact, adjectives do operate at h. The following are a few instances of adjectives operating at h:

Examples:

SOP    apka prestao / bera sunder / hey                    (HN-10)  
         (your proposal is very good.)

SOP    veh / bera mohak / legta hey                    (HN-7)  
         (It looks very attractive.)

The items sunder (good) and mohak (attractive) are members of the class traditionally called adjective. And they are exponents of h in nominal group structure. They cannot be said to be members of any of the classes which he recognizes as operating at h.

In the present account of Hindi grammar, therefore, the primary class (of the unit word) operating at h is called "substantive".<sup>8</sup>

(As English) four sub-classes of substantives:

Examples:

Noun h    unki: batchit    (their conversation)  
              yeh niḥkerj    (this conclusion)

Pronoun h    hem    (we)  
                  mēy    (I)

Proper Noun h grin (Green)

srimeti: hawper (Mrs. Hopper)

Adjective h svabhavik (natural)

neytik (moral)

Nouns may be further sub-divided into "mass noun" and "count noun" but since for our comparative purpose we stop at this point of delicacy no such distinction is drawn here.

(As English) List and apposition at h:

Examples:

list:

SOP tumhara nam / behut hi: süder ewr esadhaven/hey  
(HN-16)

(your name is very lovely and unusual.)

apposition:

uske bhai: ramu: lohar ne / keha

(His brother Ramu, the blacksmith said)

In case of a postposition (ne/ko) the appositive h precedes the postposition.

#### 4.2.2.1.1. Rankshifted clauses at h:

Examples:

SOP //eb lawina // /namunkin / tha (HN-13)  
(To return now was impossible)

SOP veh / //mezpo[ ko sikorne // / lege (HN-13)  
(He began to mop the cloth)

SOP //yehsvikar kerna // /kethin / hey (HP-7)  
(To accept this is difficult)

4.2.2.2. The element q:

q follows h and comes immediately after any post-positive particle (ne/ko). In fact, the postpositive particle, if present, may be taken as a boundary between h and q.

Examples:

q    vyəktik ko // jiskī: prəkṛitī svēniṣṭhit hēy //

(HP-9)

(the individual whose tendency is ...)

The possibilities at q are only two -

- i) reflexives
- ii) rankshifted clauses

The list of reflexives contains the following items:

svēy  
khud  
əpne ap  
əphi: ap

Each of these items may be translated by any of the following:

myself  
ourselves  
yourself  
yourselves  
herself  
himself  
itself  
themselves

The four items in Hindi are not bound by any restrictions of "number", "gender", "case".<sup>9</sup>

Examples:

vəh khud (he himself)

rajye svāy (State itself)

Rankshifted clauses at q:

Example:

yəh svətātrta // jo kevel səmaj mē hi: səmhəw hui: //

(HP-3)

(This freedom which became possible only in the State)

(As English) List and depth in rankshift at q:

Examples:

list: svətātra // jo səmaj mē sthit həy // // tētha iska  
phəl həy //

(HP-4)

(freedom which exists in society and is its product.)

rankshift in depth:

rajye-sidhdhāt // jo is səmhavna ko svīkar kerta həy //  
ki rajye ka kəlyan vyektiyō ke kəlyan se prithək //  
ya unke sukh ko tyag kər // prapt kiya ja səkta həy, //  
keōki rajye ka vyēktitvə vyēktigət vyēktitrō ko  
dhareṇ kerta həy // tētha unse pərə həy //

(HP-11)

(Any theory which admits the possibility that the welfare of the State may be achieved leaving aside the happiness of the individual because the personality of the State contains the individual and is different from the individual.)

#### 4.2.2.3. The element m:

(As English) Secondary elements d, o, e, n:



**Examples:**

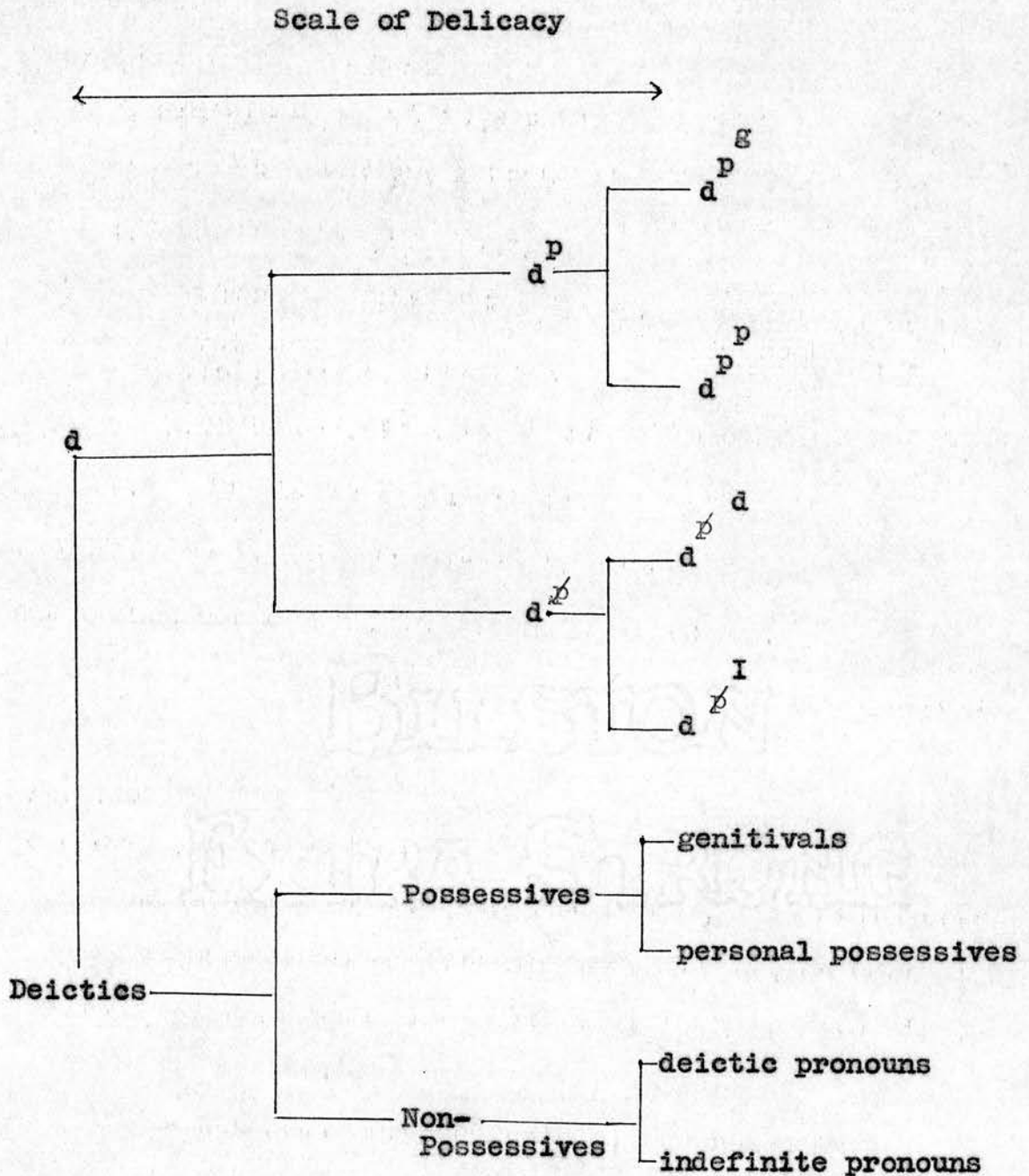
- d    yeh mekaṇ    (this house)  
      meri: kitab    (my book)
- o    do ləṛke    (two boys)  
      ti:sra mehina (third month)
- e    neya mekaṇ    (new house)  
      əchcha ləṛka    (good boy)
- n    hiḍu ləṛki:    (Hindu girl)  
      ek pyali: cae    (one cup tea)

The sequence d o e n may be regarded as normal.

**4.2.2.3.1.    The element d:**

Deictics may be further sub-divided. In this account of Hindi grammar the classification of deictics is different from Verma's and so it would be helpful to give first the one by him.<sup>10</sup>

"Deictics may, more delicately, be broken into further secondary classes:-



The distinction between the possessives and the non-possessives is that the latter may but the former may not be suffixed by ne or ko."

According to him possessives and non-possessives are secondary classes derived from deictics and are, therefore,

systemic. If it is so they are mutually exclusive: that is, possessives and non-possessives cannot occur in the same nominal group. But, in fact, they do.

For instance,

SOP    tum / meri veh kitab / ləwʈa do  
          (you return my that book)

meri (my) is a member of the class possessive and veh (that) of the non-possessive; or, more delicately, the former of the personal possessive and the latter of the deictic pronoun.

It is suggested, therefore, that two positions,  $d^a$  and  $d^b$ , be recognized for the operation of deictics: possessives operate at  $d^a$  and non-possessives at  $d^b$ . Thus the co-occurrence of the two can be accounted for. Usually,  $d^a$  precedes  $d^b$ .

More delicately, possessives break down into two secondary classes - genitivals and personal possessives. They are systemic and so only one of them can be present in the same nominal group. For instance -

genitival  $d^{ag}$  : lərke ki kitab  
                  (boy's book)

personal possessive  $d^{ab}$  : meri kitab  
                                  (my book)

There may be rankshifted nominal groups as well as clauses at  $d^{ag}$ .

Examples:

rankshifted nominal group:

mere	bhai:	ki:	kitab	(my brother's book)
	d <sup>ag</sup>		h	
d <sup>ap</sup>	h			

rankshifted clause:

yeh	kitab	peṛhne	ki:	ichcha	(the desire to read this book)
	d <sup>ag</sup>			h	
o		p			

rankshift in depth:

mere	bhai:	ke	dost	ke	lōṛke	ki:	kitab	(my brother's friend's son's book)
	d <sup>ag</sup>						h	
	d <sup>ag</sup>					h		
	d <sup>ag</sup>		h					
d <sup>ag</sup>	h							

Genitivals are always marked by the presence of ka/ke/ki: (of)

Personal possessives are grammatical items like the following:

- mera - meri: (my)
- uska - uski: (his/her)
- tumhara - tumhari: (your(s))
- unka - unki: (their)



Their selection is also determined by the restrictions of "number" and "gender"

Non-possessives may also be sub-divided into secondary classes - "deictic pronouns" and "indefinite pronouns".

Examples:

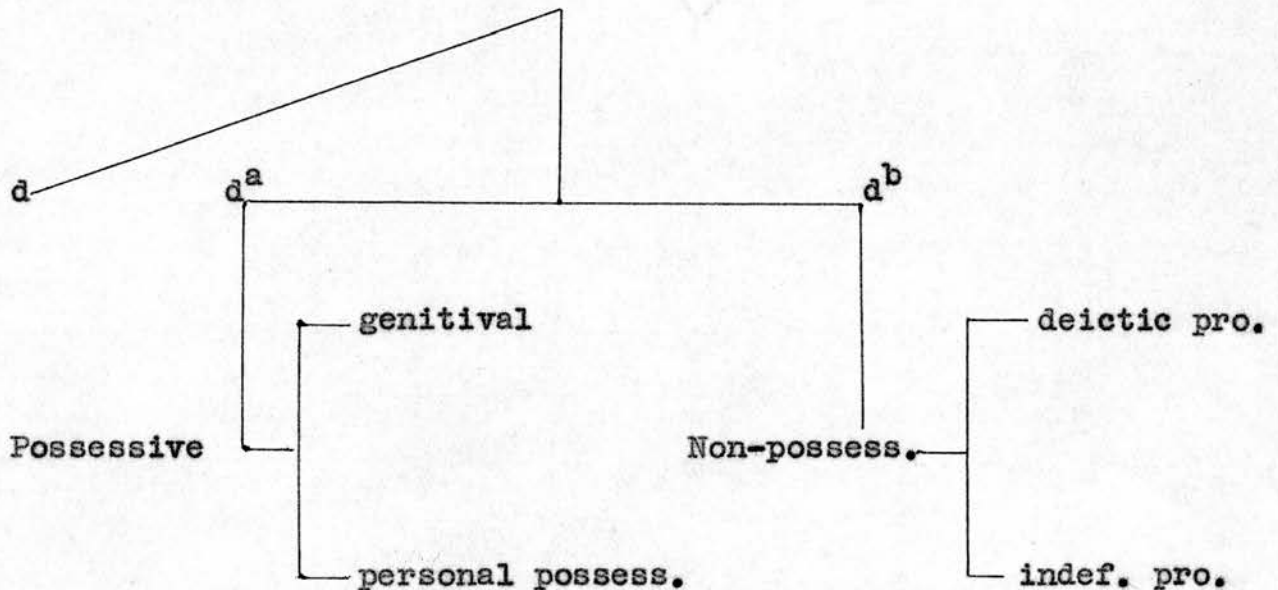
deictic pronouns: yeh ləṛka (this boy)

veh ləṛki: (that girl)

indefinite pronouns: koi: ləṛka (any boy)

kuch pani: (some water)

All these classifications of deictics may be diagrammatically summarized:



4.2.2.3.2. The element o:

(As English) Numerals at o:

Examples:

Cardinals:

- o<sup>a</sup> pəhla ləṛka (first boy)  
du:sra məhi:na (second month)

Ordinals:

- o<sup>b</sup> tin rupee (three rupees)  
do ləṛke (two boys)

In case of co-occurrence o<sup>a</sup> normally precedes o<sup>b</sup>. Cardinals at o<sup>a</sup> are bound by the restrictions of "gender".

Examples:

- pəhla ləṛka (first boy)  
pəhli: (ləṛki:) (first girl)

4.2.2.3.3. The element e:

The adjective operates at e. (As said earlier the adjective is also a sub-class of the substantive operating at h.)

Examples:

- e əchcha ləṛka (good boy)  
e moja admi: (fat man)  
e kali: kələm (black pen)

At e may also operate rankshifted clauses:

Examples:

e // uṣar tek bheri: hui: // rəkabi: ko (HN-2)  
(heaped high with ravidī plate)

e // kursi: ṣar bəyṭha hua // ləṛka  
(On the chair sitting boy)

Two positions,  $e^a$  and  $e^b$ , are distinguished:  $e^a$  is that where rankshifted clauses operate and  $e^b$  where adjectives operate. When both  $e^a$  and  $e^b$  are present in the same nominal group their sequence is fairly fixed:  $e^a$  precedes  $e^b$ .

Example:

$e^a e^b$  // asman mē urti: hui: // kali: ciṛiya  
(in the sky flying black bird)

Adjectives may also be marked by the presence of any of the following items:

sa

si:

ṣeri:kha

namək

rupi:, bher

Examples:

e bəṛa-sa badəl (big-type cloud)

e gṣḍi:-si: kitab (dirty-type book)

They may be regarded as word-class markers. In orthography they are usually hyphenated. Adjectives suffixed by these items may also operate at h in nominal group structure.

Example:

SOP    mēyderle/ pəri-def-sa / ləgta həy    (HN-7)  
         (Manderley looks fairly-land-type)

4.2.2.3.3.1. The sub-modifier:

The sub-modifier  $\psi$  , usually, precedes  $e^b$ .

Example:

$\psi e^b$     bəhut əchcha ləṛka  
         (very good boy)

The common items at  $\psi$  are:

əti  
ətyāt  
ətiv  
ədhik  
bəhut  
ətyədhik

They may be preceded by other sub-modifier.

Examples:

$\psi \psi e^b$     itna ədhik əchcha ləṛka    (such very good boy)  
 $\psi \psi e^b$     utna ədhik tez ləṛka    (so very bright boy)

itna and utna are the two common items preceding other sub-modifiers.

Comparatives and superlatives are rankshifted adverbial groups operating at  $\psi$  .



Examples:

Superlative:

ψ e səbse schcha ləṛka (the best boy)

Comparative:

ψ e tumse echcha ləṛka (better than you boy)  
kagez se pətla kəṛṛa (finer than paper cloth)

#### 4.2.2.3.4. The element n:

The element n is expounded by the class noun (which is also a sub-class of the substantive operating at h.)

Examples:

n ek pyali: cae (one cup tea)  
n ek gilas pani: (one glass water)

At n may also operate rankshifted clauses.

n // kəpre dhone vale // log (cloth washing people)  
n // kəmra saph kerne vali: // ləṛki: (room cleaning girl)  
n // iskul mē pərhne vala // ləṛka (in the school  
reading boy)

The distinguishing feature of these clauses at n is that they are always marked by the presence of vale/vali/vala. Hence we recognize two positions  $n^a$  and  $n^b$ ; the former where rankshifted clauses operate and the latter where nouns operate.

The co-occurrence of the two is possible. For instance,

$n^a n^b$  // inam pane vali: // rajput ləṛka  
(prize getting Rajput girl)

In case of their co-occurrence  $n^a$  precedes  $n^b$ .

4.2.2.4. The emphasizer:

The emphasizer, symbolized as  $\mu$ , is regarded as one of the elements of nominal group structure. It is a rather floating element: that is, it is not sequence-bound and can occur anywhere between m and q. Indeed, it may even follow q except when rankshifted clauses operate at q.

Examples:

h  $\mu$  bil: to  
d  $\mu$  h tumhari: hi: kitab  
o  $\mu$  h pehla hi: penna  
hq  $\mu$  ap svēy bhi:

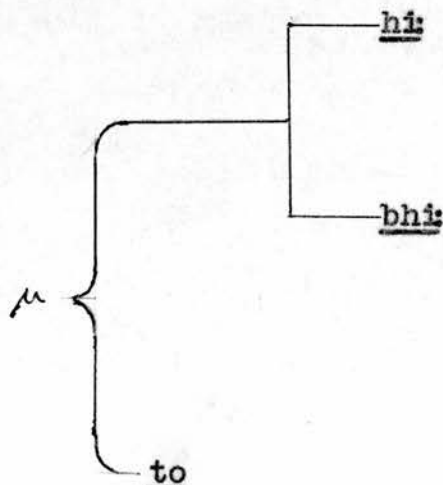
The exponents of  $\mu$  are only three:

hi:

bhi:

to

There cannot be more than two  $\mu$  in a nominal group and in case of double selection one of them must be either hi: or bhi: and the other to. On the basis of double selection they may be classified as follows:



It may be mentioned in passing that besides being a floating element the emphasizer is common to all the three group classes - the nominal group, the verbal group and the adverbial group.

Examples:

vgp: ja hi reha tha  
(was going)

Agp: mez ke uper bhi  
(on the table)

The principle of double selection is the same in all the three group classes.

#### 4.2.3. Systems of the nominal group:

Three systems are discussed - "Number", "Gender" and "Case". They are best regarded as systems carried by the whole of the nominal group because they affect m, h and q.

##### 4.2.3.1. Number:

There are two terms in the system of number - singular and plural.

Examples:

Singular:

- h     ləṛka    (boy)
- dh    yəh ləṛka    (this boy)
- doh    yəh ek ləṛka    (this one boy)
- deh    yəh əchcha ləṛka    (this good boy)

Plural:

- h     ləṛke    (boys)
- dh    ye ləṛke    (these boys)
- doh    ye dono ləṛke    (these two boys)
- deh    ye əchche ləṛke    (these good boys)

In Hindi, unlike English, plural is also marked in adjectives operating at e.

Examples:

Singular:    əchcha    (good)

Plural:        əchche    (good)

#### 4.2.3.2. Gender:

There are two terms in the system of gender - masculine and feminine.<sup>11</sup>

Examples:

masculine:    dh    mera gher    (my house)

feminine:    dh    meri kursi    (my chair)

In the above pair the distinction between masculine and feminine is present in the exponents of d as well as h.



Similarly in the following pair the distinction is present both in the exponents of e and h:

masculine: eh echcha ləṛka (good boy)

feminine: eh echchi: ləṛki: (good girl)

But the distinction is not always present at d and e. If d is expounded by non-possessives it is neutral to gender.

Examples:

masculine: yeh ləṛka (this boy)

koi ləṛka (any boy)

feminine: yeh ləṛki: (this girl)

koi ləṛki: (any girl)

It is the exponent of h which shows the distinction of gender in these examples.

Similarly there is no gender distinction at e in the following examples:

masculine: eh sūder ləṛka (handsome boy)

feminine: eh sūder ləṛki: (beautiful girl)

The item at e in both cases is the same sūder. However, the sub-modifier preceding e shows the distinction.

masculine: eh bəṛa sūder ləṛka  
(very handsome boy)

feminine: eh bəṛi: sūder ləṛki:  
(very beautiful girl)

The sub-modifier in case of masculine is bəṛa and in case of feminine bəṛi:.

4.2.3.3. Case:

At this point the nominal group at S is to be distinguished from the nominal group at O.

The system of case in the nominal group operating at S has the terms "Simple" and "Ergative". The nominal group in the ergative case is marked by the presence of the postposition ne.

Examples:

Simple:

veh (he)

srimeti: hawper (Mrs. Hopper)

koi: du:sri: le:ki: (some other girl)

Ergative:

unhone (he)

srimeti: hawper ne (Mrs. Hopper)

tumhare newker ne (your servant)

The system of case in the nominal group at O has the terms "Direct" and "Accusative". The nominal group in the accusative case is marked by the presence of the postposition ko.

Examples:

Direct:

kuch gambhir (a bit sober)

keval me:zak (only a joke)

ek anmol hi:ra (a precious diamond)

sri: de witer (Mr. de Winter)

Accusative:

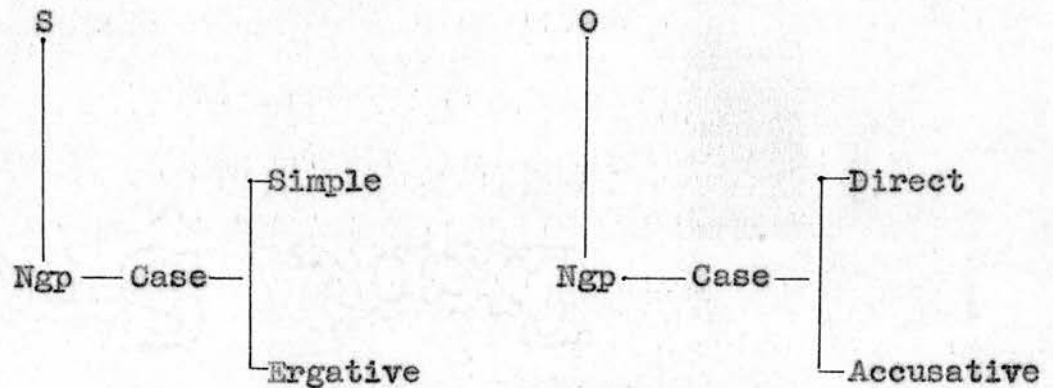
apko (you)

epni: kursi: ko (his chair)

sri: meti: hawper ko (Mrs. Hopper)

unke daktar ko (his/her doctor)

The system of case may be summarized as follows:



4.3. Comparisons: the nominal group



4.3.0. Preliminary remarks:

As said earlier the nominal group, both in English and Hindi, operates at S, C (or O in Hindi), Z and marginally at A in clause structure. In the present section this relation of the nominal group to elements of clause structure is not separately dealt with for the following reasons:

- i) Nominal groups at Z are few and they are mostly in minor clauses, which have been discussed in the preceding chapter.
- ii) Nominal groups at A are so rare (at least in the text) that they do not warrant separate treatment.
- iii) Most of the nominal groups, therefore, are exponents of either S or C/O. This distinction (between S and C/O) may occasionally be brought in while dealing with exponents of the elements of nominal group structure. For instance, nominal groups with adjectives at h operate at C and hardly at S. Similarly reflexive pronouns (himself, myself, ... etc.) usually operate at C.

This comparative study of nominal groups in English and Hindi begins with their structures.

#### 4.3.1. Structures:

Both in English and Hindi the following are the four possible structures of the nominal group:

h

hq

mhq

mh

We first give their figures from the texts and then discuss each one of them separately.

		h	hq	mhq	mh	Total
N	EN	1369 60.5%	102 4.5%	267 11.7%	524 23.3%	2262
	HN	1488 65.3%	9 .4%	5 .2%	773 34.1%	2275
P	EP	575 37.3%	125 8.1%	502 32.4%	343 22.2%	1545
	HP	707 40.4%	17 .9%	36 2.2%	990 56.5%	1750
Totals		4139 52.8%	253 3.2%	810 10.3%	2630 33.7%	7832

#### 4.3.1.1. The structure h:

There are, in the main, four sub-classes "Noun", "Pronoun", "Proper Noun" and "Adjective" operating at h. Consequently, simple nominal groups (that is, with structure h only) can be broken down further according to these sub-classes. The following table presents the figures. Those nominal groups which are not expounded by any of these sub-classes (like the item there at S) have been excluded from these figures and will be dealt with later. Similarly instances of rankshifted clauses at h have also not been included in these figures.

		Noun	Pronoun	Proper Noun	Adjective	Total
N	EN	67 5%	1160 86.3%	42 3.4%	71 5.3%	1340
	HN	311 21.8%	892 64.4%	91 6.7%	95 7.1%	1389
P	EP	78 14.5%	355 66.2%	46 8.5%	58 10.8%	537
	HP	214 32.6%	271 41.3%	28 4.3%	143 21.7%	656
Totals		670 17.1%	2278 58.1%	207 5.2%	367 19.6%	3922

4.3.1.1.1. Noun-head simple nominal groups:

Most of the noun-head simple nominal groups in English are translated as noun-head simple nominal groups in Hindi too. But their percentage has gone up in the Hindi texts - by 17% in HN and 18% in HP. The main reason is the absence of articles in Hindi. Consequently, nominal groups having the structure mh with articles operating at m are translated as nominal groups having the structure h only and the article is just dropped. This happens particularly in case of the definite article the because the indefinite article a/an may occasionally be translated as ek, which is equivalent to one. Thus the translation-equivalent retains the structure mh.

Examples:

mh a page-boy (EN-20)

mh ek chokṛa (HN-8)

(one page-boy)

But the definite article is usually just dropped and hence the structure changes from mh to h.

Examples:

mh the table (EN-14)

h mez (table) (HN-3)

mh the fork (EN-14)

h kākṛa (fork) (HN-2)

mh the State (EP-20)

h rajyē (State) (HP-8)

mh the wind (EN-30)

h hēva (wind) (HN-20)



It is also true of nouns like the cheese, the sugar, etc.

4.3.1.1.2. Pronoun-head simple nominal groups:

The two English texts display a difference of about 20% in the case of pronoun-head simple nominal groups and so do the two Hindi texts. Their percentage is higher in N than in P.

The most common pronoun in EP is it whereas the common pronouns in EN are other personal pronouns like I, he, she. Similarly the common pronoun in HP is yeh (it/this) whereas in HN the common pronouns are mēy (I), veh (he/she), ve (they) etc.

Both these features can be related to the field of discourse; the subject-matter of a novel is different from that of a political text. A big selection of pronouns like I (mēy), he/she (veh), they (ve) in a novel and a preponderance of the pronoun it (yeh) in a political text can be accounted for as due to differences in the subject-matter of the two texts.

The percentage of pronoun-head simple nominal groups has gone down in the Hindi texts by about 20%. This difference can be better explained with the help of a few

examples from the texts:

- (1) She's not really a friend, she's an employer (EN-25)
- (2) veh meri: seheli: nehī, belik meri: malkin hāy (HN-15)  
(She's not my friend but is employer)
- (3) She's training me to be a thing called a companion and she pays me ninety pounds a year. (EN-25)
- (4) veh mujhe apna sathi: banane ke liye kam sikha rehī hāy aur 90 pēṁ preti varj deti: hāy (HN-15)  
(She's training me to be her companion and pays ninety pounds a year)  
(The relevant items are underlined)

(2) and (4) are translation-equivalents of (1) and (3) respectively. The number of pronouns in (1) and (3) is four but in their translation-equivalents it is one and two although the Hindi sentences, like the English sentences, consist of two clauses.

- (5) It's getting late, shall we go home? (EN-31)
- (6) der ho rehī: hey, ab ghar celēge ne (HN-21)  
(Getting late, will go home)
- (7) It is not surprising ... (EP-34)
- (8) ismē koī: aḥerye nehī hey (HP-27)  
(in it any surprise is not)

(6) and (8) are translation-equivalents of (5) and (7). The two pronouns in (5) and one in (7), all underlined, have been dropped in their translation-equivalents (6) and (8).

It may be helpful to comment upon certain grammatical differences between English and Hindi that affect the figures of pronoun-head nominal groups in the texts. Firstly, there is a greater use of branching in Hindi paratactic structures and the "loss" of pronouns in (2) and (4) is due to this. Secondly, the "anticipating" or "null" it is not found in Hindi and thus in translation the "null" it is just dropped.<sup>12</sup> Thirdly, subject-less clauses are not so uncommon in Hindi as they are in English. In English the first clause in a sentence usually has S (unless it is an imperative clause) and other clauses, if branched, may not have S. But in Hindi there may not be S in any of the clauses in a sentence. (See (6))

4.3.1.1.3. Proper Noun-head simple nominal groups:

In translation proper nouns are often replaced by he/she and he/she by proper nouns. For this reason the texts display different figures. The percentage of proper nouns in HN has gone up but in HP it has gone down (although their actual numbers in the texts are rather small.)

Examples:

- (1) ... he gave me the menu (EN-24)
- (2) sri: de winter ne bhojen ki: suci: mere hathō  
mē pekṛa di: (HN-14)  
(Mr. de Winter gave me the menu)



(3) ... before she could trap me into a resurrection  
of their first meeting ... (EN-17)

(4) isse pehle ki srimati: hewper use phir pehli:  
mulakat ki: batō mē uljhatī ... (HN-6)  
(before Mrs. Hopper could trap him into a  
resurrection of their first meeting)

he in (1) has been replaced by Mr. de Winter in (2) and she  
in (3) by Mrs. Hopper in (4). This replacement of pronouns  
by proper nouns seems to be an arbitrary decision of the  
translator.

Let us consider the following examples from EP and HP:

(5) ... says Dr. Bosanquet ... (EP-15)

(6) ḍa bosāke ke amusar ... (HP-7)  
(According to Dr. Bosanquet)

(7) ... says Norman Angell (EP-20)

(8) nawrmān ājil ke jēbdō mē  
(In the words of Norman Angell)

(6) and (8) are translation-equivalents of (5) and (7).  
But whereas (5) and (7) are major clauses (6) and (8) are  
minor clauses consisting of adverbial groups. Though the  
items Dr. Bosanquet and Norman Angell are present in the  
Hindi texts as well with practically "the same contextual  
meaning" their grammatical meaning is different. In the  
English texts they expound simple nominal groups (operating  
at S in clause structure) whereas in the Hindi texts they  
operate in adverbial group structure. It is mainly due to  
such examples (rather than the replacement of proper nouns  
by pronouns) that the percentage of proper-noun head simple



nominal groups has gone down in HP.

4.3.1.1.4. Adjective-head simple nominal groups:

Adjective-head simple nominal groups in English are usually translated as adjective-head nominal groups in Hindi as well.

Examples:

- |     |   |         |
|-----|---|---------|
| (1) | He looks <u>ill</u>   | (EN-14) |
| (2) | veh <u>bi:mar</u> dikhai: detē hōy<br>(He looks ill)  | (N-3)   |
| (3) | His silence now was <u>painful</u>  | (EN-18) |
| (4) | uska mawn eb <u>kef̥k̥er</u> ho cela tha<br>(His silence now was painful)<br>(The relevant items are underlined.) | (HN-7)  |

But the percentage of adjective-head simple nominal groups has increased in both Hindi texts. At the same time the relative difference between EP and HP is greater than the one between EN and HN. A few examples by way of illustrations due to which their percentage has increased in the Hindi texts may be given:

- |     |   |         |
|-----|---|---------|
| (5) | SPC I / had misjudged / him   | (EN-31) |
| (6) | SOP mera khyal / <u>gelet</u> / nikla<br>(My idea turned out wrong) | (HN-21) |

- (7) SP ... she/reddened ... (EN-21)  
 (8) OP ... lal/hoti: hui: (HN-9)  
 (becoming red)

(6) and (8) are translation-equivalents of (5) and (7). In (5) and (7) there is no adjective-head nominal group but in (2) and (4) there are adjective-head nominal groups. (The relevant items are underlined.)

There are such examples in the other texts as well:

- (9) SP[A]A This right/was/clearly/threatened/by the doctrine of the absolute and unquestioned authority of the State in time of war (EP-15)  
 (10) ASAOP yudhdkal mē / rajye ki: esimit tetha nirpekeh setta ka sidhdhāt / espeṣṭeh/is adhikar ke liye / ghatek/tha (HP-8)  
 (In time of war the doctrine of the absolute and unquestioned authority of the State was clearly harmful for this right.)  
 (11) ASPC ... so far as/they/partake of/the State in its perfect development (EP-16)  
 (12) AASOP ... jehā tek/unmē/purn rajye ke gun/vertman/hēy (HP-9)  
 (so far as virtues of a perfect state are present in them)

There are no adjective-head nominal groups in (9) and (11) but in their translation-equivalents (10) and (12), there are adjective-head nominal groups. (They are underlined.)

These discrepancies are, in the main, due to a different range of verbs in Hindi. For instance, verbs equivalent to to redden, to misjudge, to threaten etc. are

not easily available in Hindi. They are therefore translated differently. In (10) to redden has been translated as lal bona (to become red) and misjudged as khyal gelet nikla (idea turned wrong). Most of the discrepancies are due to such translations.

#### 4.3.1.1.5. Other items:

Apart from these four sub-classes there are a few other items operating at *h*, which may be discussed briefly. Since these four sub-classes cover most of simple nominal groups it would be useful to discuss the rest of them by way of general observations rather than in terms of their figures in the texts. We shall discuss the following two:

- i) the unstressed there as exponent of S
- ii) rankshifted clauses operating at *h*

##### 4.3.1.1.5.1. The unstressed there:

In Hindi there is no item equivalent to the unstressed there which operates at S (in clause structure.)<sup>13</sup> In case of clauses with there operating at S exponents of C in English clause structure are translated as exponents of S in Hindi clause structure.

Examples:

- (1) SP CA There/was/a tree/on the edge of the lawn (EN-33)
- (2) AS P lawn ke kinare per/ek vrikch/tha (HN-22)
- (3) SP AC There/is/in fact/a complete identification between liberty and law (EP-14)
- (4) AA SP vāstuteh/svātātrta evam vidhi ke madhye/ek-santa/asthapit ho jati: hey (HP-6)  
(In fact a complete identification between liberty and law is established)

The exponents of C in (1) and (3) have been translated as the exponents of S in (2) and (4) respectively. There are more instances of there at S in EP than in EN.

4.3.1.1.5.2. Rankshifted clauses at h:

Rankshifted clauses at h have been recognized in both English and Hindi nominal group structure. They are few in the English texts though relatively more in EP than in EN. But rankshifted clauses at h (in nominal group structure) in the English texts have not usually been translated as rankshifted clauses at h (in nominal group structure) in the Hindi texts.

(The relevant items are underlined)

Examples:

- (1) SP C He/would not be/ // what he is // (EP-14)



- (2) SOP veh // jo kuch hey // /veh/nehī rehega  
(HP-6)  
(He what he is would not be that)

The translation-equivalent of the rankshifted clause in (1) is the rankshifted clause at q in nominal group structure in (2).

- (3) SP ... // What is peculiar about modern society // /is/... (EP-44)

- (4) SOP adhunik samaj ki vifasta/yeh/hey (HP-39)  
(The peculiarity of modern society in this)

The translation-equivalent of the rankshifted clause (3) is a nominal group in (4).

#### 4.3.1.2. The structure hq:

The following discussion of the structure hq is with reference to q. To recapitulate what has been said earlier there are, in English, four possibilities at q:

- i) adverbs
- ii) (rankshifted) nominal groups
- iii) (rankshifted) adverbial groups
- iv) (rankshifted) clauses

But in Hindi there are only three possibilities at q:

- i) the reflexive
- ii) (rankshifted) nominal groups (of very restricted types)
- iii) (rankshifted) clauses

In Hindi there is only one item svāy (or khud) which is equivalent to English reflexive pronouns (like itself, myself, herself ...). The restricted types of nominal groups are the following:

hq tum dono (you two)

hq ham caro (we four)

hq ham sab (we all)

Thus apart from rankshifted clauses there is very little common ground between the two. Not only this, items at q are very frequent in English whereas they are rather rare in Hindi.

However, we shall examine problems of translation of each of these four possibilities at q. Since their instances in the texts are not many the discussion will not include their figures from the texts.

#### 4.3.1.2.1. Adverbs at q:

Adverbs at q in English nominal group structure are usually translated either as adverbs at sub-modifier (in Hindi nominal group structure) or as adverbial groups expounding adjuncts (in Hindi clause structure.)

Examples:

at sub-modifier ( $\psi$ ):

(1) hq ... young enough

(EN-37)

- (2) h ... itni beṛi (HN-26)  
(enough young)

as adverbial groups:

- (3) ... it is not possible altogether to  
exclude from our account references to  
the nature of the various organizations ...  
(EP-39)

- (4) αβ (ASAAAP) yeh sambhew nē hoga // ki/hem/is vivraṇ  
mē/un sēgṣṭhno ki: prākṛiti ke sambēdh  
mē/bilkul/cerca hī: nekerē (HP-33)  
(It would not be possible that we  
completely ignore in this description any  
references to the nature of the various  
organizations)

(2) and (4) are translation-equivalents of (1) and (3). The translation-equivalent of enough goes at sub-modifier and that of altogether is an adverbial group operating at adjunct.  
(All the relevant items are underlined.)

In the two English texts (EN and EP) there does not seem to be any significant contrast at this point.

#### 4.3.1.2.2. Nominal groups at q:

In the text there has been no instance of a nominal group having the structure hq where a rankshifted nominal group operates at q. However, there have been a few instances of reflexive pronouns at q. Reflexive pronouns also operate at C (in clause structure) and thus their operation at q as well as at C may be discussed together.

#### 4.3.1.2.2.1. Reflexive Pronouns:

Reflexive pronouns at q (in nominal group structure) as well as at C (in clause structure) in English may be translated as reflexives at q (in nominal group structure) in Hindi.

##### Examples:

- (1) He himself was so lost ... (EN-31)
- (2) veh sveṣ itne khoe hue the (HN-21)  
(He himself was so lost)
- (3) ... the State is itself moral (EP-14)
- (4) ... rajye sveṣ neytik hey (HP-7)  
(The State itself is moral)

himself and itself in (1) and (3) have both been translated as syṣy at q (in nominal group structure) in (2) and (4). That is to say, the translation-equivalent does not distinguish between (5) and (6).

- (5) The State is itself moral
- (6) The State itself is moral

This, however, is not always the case whenever C is expounded by the reflexive pronoun. Let us look at the following examples:

- (5) S P C She/killed/herself
- (6) S O P usne/apne-apko/mar liya  
(She killed herself)



herself at C in (5) has been translated as apne-apko at O in (6). (5) and (6) are structurally identical.

It is to be noted in this connection that the item itself at C in English clause structure is more likely to be translated as khud/svey at q to Hindi nominal group structure than any other item like myself, herself.

#### 4.3.1.2.3. Adverbial groups at q:

Adverbial groups at q are usually translated as

- i) exponents of adjuncts (in clause structure)
- ii) exponents of m (in nominal group structure)

Examples: (at adjuncts):

- |     |      |  |         |
|-----|------|--|---------|
| (1) | SPC  | Billy/is/crazy <u>about her</u>  | (EN-17) |
| (2) | SAOP | bill: / <u>uske piche</u> / divana/həy<br>(Billy about her crazy is)   | (HN-6)  |
| (3) | SPC  | ... his conduct/is/prejudicial <u>to its welfare</u>   | (EP-28) |
| (4) | SAOP | ... uska acərən/ <u>samajik kəlyan ki drist:ise/</u><br>hanikarək/həy<br>(His conduct to its welfare prejudicial is) | (HP-20) |

(2) and (4) are translation-equivalents of (1) and (3).  
Adverbial groups operating at q to nominal group structure in (1) and (3) have been translated as adverbial groups expounding adjuncts in clause structure in (2) and (4).

They are not part of the nominal group because they can occupy different places in the clause. For instance, it is possible to vary (4) from SAOP to, say, ASOP:

ASOP     samajik kalyan ki drishti se/uska aceren/  
           hanikarek/hay

(To its welfare his conduct prejudicial is)

whereas it is hardly possible to make such variation in (3).

Examples: (at m):

- |      |    |   |         |
|------|----|---|---------|
| (5)  | hq | <u>pictures of it</u>   | (EN-18) |
| (6)  | mh | <u>iski</u> tasvirē<br>(its pictures)                           | (HN-7)  |
| (7)  | hq | <u>signs of renewed vitality</u>                                | (EP-29) |
| (8)  | mh | <u>nevin jivan-jēkti ke cinh</u><br>(of renewed vitality signs) | (HP-21) |
| (9)  | hq | <u>supporters of the theory</u>                                 | (EP-19) |
| (10) | mh | <u>is sidhdhāt ke</u> samarthkō<br>(of the theory supporters)   | (HP-11) |

All these adverbial groups at q in (5), (7) and (9) have been translated as possessives at m in (6), (8) and (10) respectively. Prepositional phrases with of + nominal groups are very likely to be translated as possessives at m whereas prepositional phrases with prepositions other than of may be translated as separate adverbial groups. (q in depth will be dealt with later.) It may be noted that in Hindi there is no distinction such as between pictures of it and its pictures, John's books and books of John. Consequently, their translation-equivalent is the same.

4.3.1.2.4. Clauses at q:

The operation of rankshifted clauses at q is common to both English and Hindi nominal groups. But since most of rankshifted clauses at q occur in the structure mhq (rather than hq) the point is dealt with in the following section.

4.3.1.3. The structure mhq:

The structure mhq may first be considered with reference to q. We shall be concerned with the following two:

- i) rankshifted clauses at q
- ii) recursive q

4.3.1.3.1. Rankshifted clauses at q:

It is possible that rankshifted clauses at q in English nominal group structure may be translated as rankshifted clauses at q in Hindi nominal group structure:

Examples:

- (1) mhq This real freedom // which exists in society //  
(EP-12)
- (2) mhq yeh yetharth svetġtrta // jo samaj mē isthit hey //  
(HP-4)  
(This real freedom which exists in society)

(The relevant items are underlined.) If, however, the rankshifted clause contains a non-finite verbal group it is likely to be translated as a rankshifted clause operating at m. For instance,

- (3) mhq your efforts //to monopolize the conversation//  
(EN-21)

- (4) mh //khud hi sari: batci:t kerne// ki:  
tumhari: cejta (HN-10)  
(To monopolize the conversation your efforts)

In (4) the rankshifted clause operates at a place where normally possessives operate: that is, at d.

Another example:

- (5) mhq The man //to mend it//  
(6) mh //ise benane// vala admi:  
(to mend it man)

In (6) the rankshifted clause operates at m - more delicately at n.

It may, however, be mentioned that what is possible is not necessarily the same thing as what usually happens (or rather what has usually happened in the texts). Though, as shown above, rankshifted clauses at q are possible in Hindi nominal group structure a great majority of such clauses in the English texts have been translated as adding clauses in the Hindi texts. This is particularly so in EP and HP.

Examples:

- (7) The freedom //which man obtains in and through society//  
is a real and concrete freedom (EP-14)



- (8) jis svetštrta ki: prapti memiye ko rajye mē tetha  
rajye द्वारा hoti: hey // voh yetharth teth murt  
svetštrta hey (HP-6)  
(which freedom man obtains in and through society  
it is a real and concrete freedom.)
- (9) ... he can have no rights // which conflict with  
those of the State // (EP-13)
- (10) ... uske aise adhikar ho hi: nahī sekte //  
jinka rajye ke adhikarō se virodh ho (HP - 5)  
(He can have no rights, which conflict with those  
of the State)

Rankshifted clauses at q in (7) and (9) have been translated as additioning clauses in (8) and (10). It may be mentioned that more than 60% sentences in EP contain rankshifted clauses in EP whereas not more than 20% of sentences contain rankshifted clauses in EN.

4.3.1.3.2. Rankshift in depth at q:

Rankshift in depth at q may be of three kinds.

- i) those involving rankshifted adverbial groups
- ii) those involving rankshifted clauses
- iii) those involving both rankshifted adverbial groups and clauses.

Each of these may be considered separately. It is to be noted that recursion at q is a feature of the English nominal group structure only and not of the Hindi nominal group structure. In the two English texts their numbers are rather small and hence their figures are not given. However, instances of (i) are more than those of (ii) and (iii) and recursion, in general, is relatively more common in EP than in EN.

4.3.1.3.2.1. Those involving (rankshifted) adverbial groups:

Rankshifted adverbial groups in depth at q are most frequently translated as separate adverbial groups expounding adjuncts in clause structure. For instance,

- (1) S P C ... She/staked/a claim upon a certain sofa  
in the lounge (EN-15)

- (2) S A A O P unhone/aram kærne vale kœmre mē/ek sofe  
per/kœbja/jœma rækha tha (HN-3)  
(She in the lounge upon a sofa had staked  
a claim.)

(The relevant items are underlined.)

If, however, those adverbial groups contain of + Ngps they are likely to be translated as possessives operating at m (in nominal group structure.)

Examples:

- (3) q this theory of the origin of society (EP-11)
- (4) m semaj ki: utpetti: ke sidhdhāt ko (HP-3)  
(Society's origins theory)
- (5) q the sound of that heart of yours (EN-23)
- (6) m apke hriday ki: dhopken (HN-12)  
(your heart's sound)

Recursion at q in (3) and (5) has shifted, so to say, to recursion at m in (4) and (6).

If those adverbial groups contain of as well as other prepositions, (say, on, in,) the adverbial groups containing of are translated as possessives at m and others not containing of as adverbial groups expounding adjuncts (in clause structure.)

Examples:

(The relevant items are underlined.)

- (7) S P C The state of war/shows/the omnipotence of  
the State in its individuality (EP-15)
- (8) S O A P yudhdh ki: dāja/rajye ki: serv[ekti]alita ko/  
iske vyektitve mē/praderjit kerti: hey (HP-8)  
(The State of war the omnipotence of the  
state in its individuality presents)
- (9) P C ... blowing/a great cloud of cigarette  
into the air (EN-19)

- (10) A O P heva mē/sigret ke dhuē ka ek bēra sa badel/  
benate hue ... (HN-8)  
(In the air a great cloud of cigarette  
blowing)

Most of recursive adverbial groups are of this kind: that is, with of as well as other prepositions.

4.3.1.3.2.2. Those involving (rankshifted) clauses:

Of all the three (mentioned in 4.3.1.3.2.) this is the least common in the texts. In EN there is only one such instance, which has been translated as two sentences.<sup>14</sup>

They are usually translated as additioning clauses, which may be recursive.

For instance,

In his view men enjoy a freedom // which is more real than that // which they abandoned // when they quitted their hypothetical lawless state of nature to enter society // (EP-11)

β[γ] uske anusar manujye jis svetštrta ka upbhog kerte hēy, //  
veh us svetštrta se adhik setye hēy // jiska unhone //  
apni: kelpit vidhihin prakritik evertha ko tyag ker //  
samaj mē provej kerne ke samay perityag kiya tha  
(HP-3)

The clause "when they ... society" has been translated as a conditioning clause in the Hindi sentence as well.

It has also been observed that if the number of recursive clauses at q exceeds three the sentence itself is usually split up into two or more sentences.



There is one example in which such clauses have been translated as possessives at m:

the main positions //adopted by those //who hold it ///

(EP-9)

iske pretipadkō ke prēmukh vicarō ka vernēn

(HP-1)

(description of the main views of its exponents.)

But this sort of translation is rather unusual.

#### 4.3.1.3.2.3. Those involving rankshifted clauses and adverbial groups:

They may be regarded as a combination of the two, discussed above. Indeed, they are translated as such. That is, rankshifted clauses are translated as additioning clauses and rankshifted adverbial groups either as possessives at m (in nominal group structure) or adverbial groups expounding adjuncts (in clause structure.)

Examples:

(1) ... that aspect of the individual's will //which harmonizes with the will of others // (EP-12)

(2) ... yeh vyēkti ke sēkelp ke us pekch ka pretinidhitve kerta hey//jiska anye vyēktiget sēkelpō se virodh nēhē hey (HP-4)

(It represents that aspect of the individual's will, which is not antagonistic to the will of others)

(3) ... a plate of ham and tongue //that somebody had sent back to the cold buffet half an hour before as badly carved // (EN-13)

- (4) ... vāh mere samne thēdhe goṣṭ ki vāh pleṭ rēkh gēya  
tha, // jise thik se tēyyar nē hone ke karēn kisi  
admi: nē adh ghōṭe pēhle vapes kē kiya tha

(HN-2)

(He had placed before me that plate of cold meat,  
which somebody had returned half an hour ago as  
badly carved.)

- (5) ... no other party besides the State // which is  
itself the sum of all parties //

(EP-14)

- (6) rajyē ke etirikt anyē koī: pēkch sēmbhāw nēhī //  
jv svāy hi: sēb pēkchō ka yog hēy

(HP-7)

(There can be no other party besides the State,  
which is itself the sum of all parties)

All rankshifted clauses have been translated as additioning  
clauses. The rankshifted adverbial groups in (1) and (3)  
have been translated as possessives at m in (2) and (4) but  
the rankshifted adverbial group in (5) has been translated as  
an adverbial group operating at A (in clause structure)  
in (6). (All of them are underlined.)

However, two deviations from this general tendency may  
be noted. Firstly, rankshifted clauses in recursive q are,  
occasionally, translated as reported and additioning clauses.  
Secondly, adverbial groups with to/for + nominal groups have,  
occasionally, also been translated as possessives at m. In  
both cases instances of them are rare.

#### 4.3.1.4. The structure mh:

As is clear from the figures in 4.3.1. the percentage of nominal groups having the structure mh has increased considerably in the Hindi texts. This is mainly due to the fact that rankshifted adverbial groups at q of the type of + nominal groups are translated as possessives at m. (for examples see p.195) It is also to be noted that the percentage has increased more in HP than in HN. (The difference between EN and HN is 11% but between EP and HP 34%).

Different exponents at m are separately discussed.

#### 4.3.1.4.1. Deictics:

##### 4.3.1.4.1.1. Specific Deictics:

We shall first deal with specific deictics. For the purpose of the present study they are divided into three groups, which are as follows:

Specific Deictics		
the	this that these those	my his her whose ...

These groupings are useful for a study of their translation-equivalents.

The definite article the is separated from others for the fact that there is no such thing in Hindi - nothing that can be considered as even remotely similar to the article in English. In translation, therefore, the definite article (the) is usually just dropped. Consequently, in translation-equivalents, there is no distinction between, say, the State and State, the problems and problems, the table and table and so on. This distinction as it were gets lost in Hindi. (For examples see p.181)

The (specific) deictics this, that, these and those, placed in the second group, are translated by certain deictic pronouns in Hindi.

Examples:

- |   |         |
|---|---------|
| (1) <u>this</u> freedom                 | (EP-11) |
| (2) <u>yeh</u> svētātrta (this freedom) | (HP-3)  |
| (3) <u>this</u> car                     | (EN-30) |
| (4) <u>yeh</u> kar (this car)           | (HN-20) |
| (5) <u>this</u> stupid story            | (EN-29) |
| (6) <u>is</u> mārkhṭapurṇ ghəṭna ko     | (HN-19) |
| (7) <u>this</u> statement               | (EP-18) |
| (8) <u>is</u> kəṭhən ko                 | (HP-10) |

There are two items yeh and is, equivalent to this. They are not free variants: that is, in a given instance one cannot be replaced by the other. The restriction is this: if the nominal group is marked by the presence of a postposition



(ne/ko) the item would be is (see (6) and (8)) and if the nominal group is not marked by any postposition the item would be yeh (see (2) and (4)). In genitival nominal groups (which are always marked by ka/ke/ki) the translation-equivalent of this would be is.

For instance,

is ləṛke ka pita  
(this boy's father)

The same thing holds good in case of the other three, that, these and those: that is, each of them has two equivalents - veh/us (that), ye/in (these), ve/un (those). The restrictions for their choice are also the same as those for yeh/is (this).

Examples:

that man	{	<u>veh</u> admi:
		<u>us</u> admi: ne/ko
<u>these</u> people	{	<u>ye</u> log
		<u>in</u> logō ne/ko
those children	{	<u>ve</u> becce
		<u>un</u> beccō ne/ko

Their equivalents may now be shown as follows:

English	Hindi
this	yeh/is
that	veh/us
these	ye/in
those	ve/un

The (specific) deictics of the third group (his, my, your ... etc.) are translated by personal possessives in Hindi. Personal possessives enter into gender concord with the exponents of h (in nominal group structure) and so each of the items his, my, your ... etc. has two equivalents - one masculine and the other feminine.

Examples:

<u>my</u> life	(EN-14)
<u>mera</u> jivn (my life)	(HN-3)
<u>my</u> distress	(EN-19)
<u>meri</u> sthiti (my distress)	(HN-8)
<u>His</u> silence	(EN-18)
<u>uska</u> mawn (his silence)	(HN-7)
<u>His</u> eyes	(EN-19)
<u>uski</u> akhe (his eyes)	(HN-8)
<u>its</u> authority	(EP-26)
<u>iski</u> jekti (its authority)	(HP-17)
<u>its</u> development	(EP-11)
<u>iska</u> vistar	(HP-3)

Thus their equivalents may be shown as follows:

English	Hindi
my	mera/meri:
our	hamara/hamari:
your	tumhara/tumhari:
his/her	uska/uski:
their	unka/unki:
its	iska/iski:
whose	jiska/jiski:

#### 4.3.1.4.1.2. General Deictics:

##### 4.3.1.4.1.2.1. Partial Deictics:

The most frequent partial deictics in the texts are

a

any

some

with occasional occurrences of another and several. In case of a two things usually happen. Firstly, it may be translated as a cardinal ek (one) (operating at 0 in nominal group structure) Secondly, it may be translated either as an indefinite pronoun or a personal possessive.

Examples:

as ek (one):

a gem (EN-18)

ek enmol hira (one gem) (HN-8)

a well-known writer (EN-21)

ek mefhur lekha k (a famous writer) (HN-10)

a real will (EP-12)

ek getharth sōkelp (a real will) (HP-4)

This, in fact, is the most frequent translation of a: that is, it is taken to mean one.

as indefinite pronoun:

an answer (EN-22)

koi jēbab (any answer) (HN-11)

a relation (EN-25)

koi rīftedar (any relation) (HN-15)

as personal possessive:

an employer (EN-25)

meri malkin (my employer) (HN-15)

a friend (EN-25)

meri seheli (my friend) (HN-15)

Most of the occurrences of a are covered by these possibilities, as illustrated above. However a is, occasionally, dropped as well: that is, a given nominal group is translated as if it is without a, so to say.

Examples:

a good room (EN-20)

bēhiya kēma (good room) (HN-9)

a fool (EP-28)

mu:rkh (fool) (HP-20)

Two other partial deictics, any and some, are quite regularly translated by two indefinite pronouns, koi and kuch, respectively.



Examples:

some English thinkers

kuch āgl vicarkō ne (some English thinkers)

some examples

kuch udaherēṇ (some Examples)

any man

koi admī (any man)

any thing

koi ci:j (anything)

It may be noted that koi (any), as shown above, may also be a translation-equivalent of a in certain cases. kuch may also be a translation-equivalent of several and another may occasionally be translated as an ordinal, du:sra (second).

Examples:

several days

kuch din (several days)

another proposal

du:sra prēstao (second proposal)

4.3.1.4.1.2.2. Total Deictics:

In Hindi there is no item which can be called an equivalent to the total (exclusive) deictic no. What happens in translation is that no is translated by koi/yeh and the negative meaning is shifted to the verbal group.

Examples:

(1) There/seemed/no possible reply

(EN-21)

- (2) koi thi:k jebab/meri: semejh mē/nehi: aya (HN-10)  
(Any possible reply did not come to my mind)
- (3) There/is/no suggestion ... (EP-17)
- (4) yeh sēket/nehi: hey (HP-10)  
(This suggestion is not)
- (5) There/is/no reason (EP-18)
- (6) koi karen/nehi: hey (HP-10)  
(Any reason is not)

The verbal groups in (2), (4) and (6) are negative. (The negative particle nehi: is underlined.) In place of no there is koi: (any) in (2) and (6) and yeh (this) in (4).

The other total (inclusive) deictics are both, all, each and every. Both is translated as a numeral meaning two operating at 0 (in nominal group structure.)

Examples:

both stories

dono kehaniyā (two stories)

Like other numerals dono follows deictics:

both these stories

ye dono kehaniyā (these two stories)

All is translated by sēb/sēbhi: and both each and every are translated by pretek/her.

Examples:

All States

sēbhi: rajyō ko

all men

seb menufye

sebhi: and seb may be regarded as free variants.

Each and Every:

each man

her admi:

each individual

pretek vyekti

every possible step

her sambhew ceren

every morning

pretek subeh

Thus in translation each and every are indistinguishable.

#### 4.3.1.4.2. Numerals:

Numerals in English are usually translated as numerals in Hindi as well - indeed cardinals as cardinals and ordinals as ordinals.

Examples:

Cardinals:

ninety pounds (EN-26)

nəbbe pəwā (ninety pounds) (HN-16)

Three paradoxical results (EP-13)

ti:n virodhabhasi: perīṇam (HP-6)

(Three paradoxical results)

Ordinals:

a <u>third</u> difficulty	(EP-38)
<u>tisri</u> keṭhinaḥ (third difficulty)	(HP-33)
<u>second</u> time	(EN-31)
<u>duisri</u> bar (second time)	(HN-21)

In English items like most, last operate at 0 (in nominal group structure) but their translation-equivalents in Hindi do not operate at 0 but at (in nominal group structure.)

Examples:

the most important reason  
sebhse mukhya karen  
(most important reason)  
last chance  
sebhse ātim evsar  
(last chance)

Apart from such occasional deviations there is indeed a high degree of correspondence between numerals in English and Hindi.

4.3.1.4.3. The element e:

To recapitulate what has been said earlier, three positions  $e^a$ ,  $e^b$  and  $e^c$  have been recognized in English nominal group structure and they are distinguished according to the operation of different sub-classes of adjectives at



these places. In Hindi nominal group structure on the other hand only two positions  $e^a$  and  $e^b$  have been recognized: the former where rankshifted clauses operate and the latter where adjectives operate.

For the purpose of translation the three sub-classes of adjectives in English are better arranged in two groups: one with verbal items (which most frequently operate at  $e^c$ ) and the other with items from the two sub-classes of adjectives operating at  $e^a$  and  $e^b$ . Thus adjectives like good, bad and colour adjectives (red, blue ... etc.) are, for the present purpose, grouped together. For the sake of convenience these two groups may be called Group A and Group B:

Group A	Group B
falling (snow)	good (boy)
sinking (ship)	moral (relations)
. . . . .	blue (suit)
. . . . .	. . . . .

Group B:

Items from Group B are almost invariably translated as adjectives operating at  $e^b$  in Hindi nominal group structure.

Examples:

<u>dry</u> napkin	(EN-24)
<u>sukha</u> tawliya (dry napkin)	(HN-13)
<u>valuable</u> portraits	(EN-18)
<u>behu: mu: lye</u> citr (valuable portraits)	(HN-8)
<u>social</u> life	(EP-22)
<u>samajik</u> jiven (social life)	(HP-14)

<u>moral</u> relations	(EP-14)
<u>neytik sambādh</u> (moral relations)	(HP-6)
<u>black</u> satin	(EN-39)
<u>kala</u> saṭen (black satin)	(HN-27)

Colour-adjectives in Hindi occupy the same place as other adjectives.

#### Group A:

Items from Group A are either translated as adjectives at  $e^b$  or as rankshifted clauses at  $e^a$ ,

Examples:

as adjectives at  $e^b$ :

an <u>appalling</u> tragedy	(EN-35)
ek <u>bheyānek</u> durgheṭna (a terrible accident)	(HN-24)
its <u>striking</u> logical development	(EP-15)
iska <u>viśiṣṭ</u> tarkik vikāś (its striking logical development)	(HP-7)

as rankshifted clauses at  $e^a$ :

my <u>halting</u> sentence	(EN-19)
mere <u>ṭhēkte hue</u> vākya (my halting sentence)	(HN-8)
<u>flowing</u> water	
<u>ḥēhta</u> (hua) pani: (flowing water)	

4.3.1.4.4. The element n:

A comparative study of the element n in English and Hindi nominal group structure presents a rather interesting feature. Though n is possible in both the exponent of n in English nominal group structure is hardly translated as the exponent of n in Hindi nominal group structure as well.

Let us consider this point with the help of a few examples:

- |     |    |  |         |
|-----|----|--|---------|
| (1) | nh | cigarette case                         | (EN-17) |
| (2) | dh | sigreṭ ka qibba<br>(case of cigarette) | (HN-6)  |
| (3) | nh | village shop                           | (EN-25) |
| (4) | dh | gaō ki dū: kan<br>(shop of village)    | (HN-15) |

In all these examples the structure changes from nh to dh and genitivals operate at d. This is what usually happens.

Certain English nominal groups without n are translated as Hindi nominal groups with n.

Examples:

- |     |                                   |
|-----|-----------------------------------|
| dhq | a cup of tea                      |
| onh | ek pyali: cae (one cup tea)       |
| ohq | two bottles of wine               |
| onh | do botel jeraḥ (two bottles wine) |

This happens usually when h of the English nominal group is expounded by items like glass, cup, bottle, kettle ...

Rankshifted clauses also operate at n in Hindi nominal group structure. They are of a very restricted type in the sense that they are always marked by the presence

of vala/vale/vali. A Hindi nominal group with structure nh where n is expounded by a rankshifted clause is a translation-equivalent of an English nominal group like the following:

The man //to mend it// /hasn't come  
nh //ise benane vala//admi/ / nehf aya hey  
(To mend it man hasn't come)

Other examples would be -

the man //to do it//  
nh //ise benane vala//admi/  
(To do it man)  
The man //to help him//  
nh //ise meded kerne vala//admi/  
(To help him man)

Obviously, such examples are of a restricted kind.



## CHAPTER 5

### THE ADVERBIAL GROUP

#### 5.1. The adverbial group in English

### 5.1.1. Places of Operation:

To recapitulate what has been said earlier there are, in the main, two places for the adverbial group to operate.<sup>1</sup>

Firstly, it expounds A in clause structure:

PA	... laughed/ <u>a little awkwardly</u>	(EN-21)
SPA	We/ arrived/ <u>at our floor</u>	(EN-21)
SPA	... they/ obey/ <u>unwillingly</u>	(EP-15)
ASP	<u>In an emergency</u> / the State/ may do ...	(EP-15)

Secondly, it is rankshifted to g in nominal group structure:

mh q	the memory <u>of this postcard</u>	(EN-25)
mh q	the claim <u>to omnipotence</u>	(EP-17)
mh q	the morning <u>after the bridge party</u>	(EN-23)

### 5.1.2. Types of Adverbial Groups:

It may be convenient to distinguish, right at the beginning, two different (morphological) types of adverbial groups. Those with preposition + nominal groups may be called "prepositional phrases" and all others "adverbial phrases".<sup>2</sup> In the latter h is expounded by the class of adverb.

Examples:

prepositional phrases (prep + Ngps):

in the room

on the table

with a jerk

adverbial phrases (with adverb h):

a little awkwardly

happily

rather senselessly

#### 5.1.2.1. Prepositional Phrases:

To describe the structures of prepositional phrases three elements modifier (m), head (h) and completive (c) are needed. Of the three h and c are obligatory and m is optional. Their sequence is fixed: m, if present, precedes h and c follows h.

Formulaically,

(m) h c, which means that there are only two possibilities:

i) h c

ii) m h c

h is the place where prepositions operate and c where (rank-shifted) nominal groups operate.<sup>3</sup>

Examples:

h c on the sofa

h c like me

h c into my face

m h c not for the first time

m h c even for her



A number of compound prepositions may also operate at h.

Examples:

h c because of his illness

h c in front of the house

h c out of the room

There may occasionally be clauses rankshifted to c.

But there are considerable restrictions on them; they contain non-finite verbal groups and are usually of the ing-type.

Examples:

h c of //living together in a State// (EP-18)

Thus the possibilities at c are two:

- i) (rankshifted) nominal groups
- ii) (rankshifted) clauses

#### 5.1.2.2. Adverbial Phrases:

The inventory of elements m, h, q, is used to describe the structures of adverbial phrases. The head (h) of adverbial phrases is expounded by adverbs. Both m and q are optional; the former precedes and the latter follows h. Formulaically,

(m) h (q)

The following are the four possibilities:

h reluctantly

mh very reluctantly

hq brightly still

mhq very brightly still

Further classifications of adverbs according to the structures they appear in may be made but are not considered necessary for the present work.

There are considerable restrictions both at m and q. The usual items at m are very, as, more etc. These restrictions at m and q are shown with the help of the following examples of structures:

m	h	q
	nicely	enough, indeed, ...
as	nicely	as + { Ngp clause
more	nicely	than + { Ngp clause

Examples:

mh q as nicely as his brother  
as nicely as he could  
more nicely than his brother  
more nicely than his brother ever did

It is to be noted that most of the prepositions (which operate at h in prepositional phrases) may also expound the h of adverbial phrases.

Examples:

h He isn't in  
h You'll find it underneath  
mh Go straight in

5.1.2.2.1. Fixed Phrases:

The following is a list<sup>4</sup> of some common adverbial phrases which are better regarded as fixed phrases:

above all  
after all  
as a matter of fact  
as it were  
at least  
at all  
by and large  
in fact  
in short  
in the end  
of course  
on the one hand  
on the other hand  
so to speak  
that is  
that is to say  
.....

Morphologically it looks as if they can be further analysed. Indeed some of them like as it were, so to speak, that is to say have something of the morphology of clauses. But their syntactic function is the same as that of any other adverbial groups operating at A in clause structure. At the same time their morphology, so to say, is fixed; they do not allow any alterations. It seems pointless, therefore, to make any further

analysis of these items; they are better considered as fixed items and may be called "fixed adverbial phrases" having the structure h.

### 5.1.3. Linkers and Binders:

Linkers and binders have been treated as sub-classes of adverbial groups operating at A (in clause structure).

Some of the common items are the following:

<u>Linkers</u>	<u>Binders</u>
and	when
or	because
but	the minute
so	if
therefore	the moment
. . . . .	as soon as
	provided that
	. . . . .

These lists are distinct enough but for and though may function as linkers as well as binders:

#### Binders:

- This time his shaft had found its marks, //  
for she reddened ... (EN-21)  
... though titles were preferred by her ... (EN-15)

#### Linkers:

- For moral relations imply two parties ... (EP-14)  
They were talking though ... (EN-17)



though, as a linker, comes finally in a clauses whereas, as a binder, it initiates a dependent clause.

Linkers may be divided into those which have a fixed position and those which do not have any fixed position. For instance, and, or, but ... always come initially in clauses whereas therefore, then ... may come elsewhere as well.

Examples:

... or don't you think of it at all? (EN-19)

... and I noticed ... (EN-18)

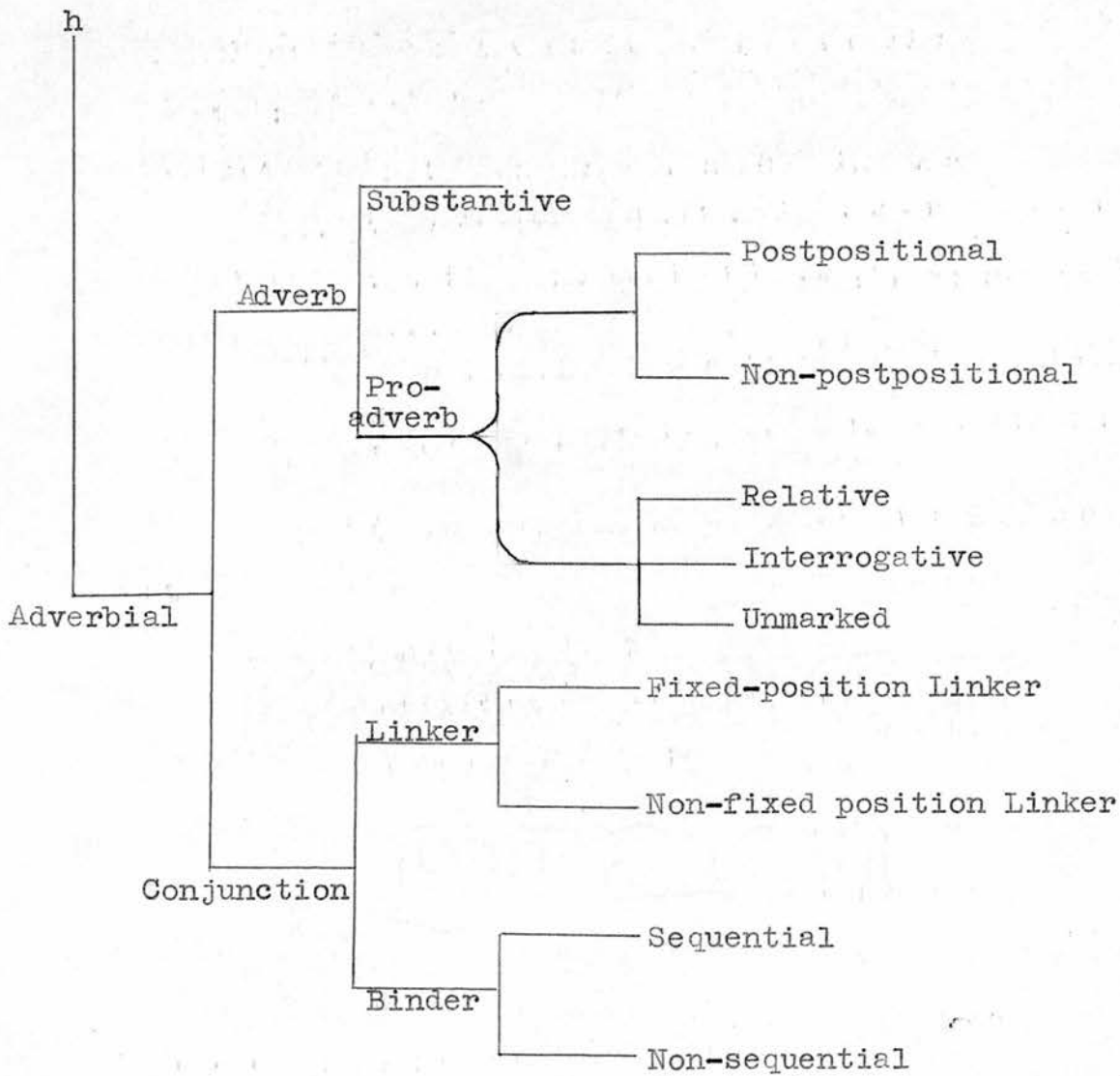
... it was a surprise, therefore, to find ... (EN-16)

We may then conclude ... (EP-16)

## 5.2. The adverbial group in Hindi



presentation of the exponent of h is as follows:<sup>5</sup>





Leaving aside linkers and binders, the exponent of *h* in adverbial group structure, according to this diagram, is adverb. This is perfectly satisfactory to describe adverbial groups such as -

itni: tezi: se  
(so quickly)

bahut dhi:re  
(very slowly)

But there would be difficulties with adverbial groups like the following:

kemre mē  
(in the room)  
us mez per  
(on that table)

since there are no adverbs in these examples. It is because of such examples that the adverbial group is handled differently in the present account of Hindi grammar.

Before considering adverbial group structure it would be helpful, therefore, to distinguish two types of adverbial groups: those which are always marked by postpositions and those which may or may not be marked by postpositions.

Examples:

postpositions obligatory:

mere pita se  
(from my father)

vyektiget sambēdhō mē  
(in personal relations)

epne priye sofe per  
(on her favourite sofa)

postpositions optional:

jeldi: (se)

(quickly)

yehā

(here)

chet ke uper (se)

(from on the roof)

It is convenient to have names to talk about these two types of adverbial groups and hence the labels "Nominal-head adverbial groups" and "Adverb-head adverbial groups" may be used.<sup>6</sup> Those adverbial groups with postpositions as obligatory are called "nominal-head adverbial groups" and those with postpositions as optional "adverb-head adverbial groups."

5.2.2.1. Nominal-head adverbial groups:

Nominal-head adverbial groups can best be described as nominal groups having structure (m) h marked by the presence of any of the following postpositions:

mē

se

per

That is,

Nominal-head Agps = Nominal groups (m) h + mē / se / per

Examples:

unki: batci:t mē  
(in their conversation)

tumse  
(to you)

unper  
(on him)

uperyukt vivecen se  
(from the above discussion)

It is to be noted that morphologically these postpositions alone distinguish nominal-head adverbial groups from nominal groups having structure (m) h.

5.2.2.2. Adverb-head Adverbial Groups:

Two elements m and h are needed to describe the structures of adverb-head adverbial groups. m is optional and h obligatory; the former usually precedes the latter.<sup>7</sup>

Examples:

h yehā  
(here)

əcanək  
(suddenly)

m h bəhut jeldi:  
(very quickly)

itni: buri: tərəh  
(so badly)

The exponent of h is the word-class adverb.

Examples:

jeldi: se  
(quickly)

yehā  
(here)

vehā  
(there)

iske baher  
(outside that)

kemre ke ēder  
(inside the room)

Some of the items like ēder (inside), baher (out/outside), bīc (middle/between) have been traditionally treated as postpositions.<sup>8</sup> But they have been classified here as adverbs along with other items like yehā (here), vehā (there) which are traditionally regarded as adverbs. The reasons are both syntactic and morphological. Syntactically, like other adverbs they operate at the same place (A) in clause structure. Most of them may also constitute simple adverbial groups:

AP    baher/ jao  
      (go outside)

AP    ēder/ ao  
      (come inside)

SAP   māy/ u:per/ cəhūga  
      (I'll climb up)

Morphologically, like other adverbs they may be marked by postpositions and may also take modifiers.



Examples:

mh iske bahar se  
(outside that)  
tumhare 3der se  
(from inside you)

However, at a later stage in delicacy adverbs may be further distinguished according to the structures they appear in. Not all of them can take the same modifiers. Some of them like the following do not take any modifiers at all:

kehā }  
jahā } (where)  
eb (now)

But any further classification is not considered necessary for the present work.

The usual items at m are bəhut (very), itna (so), jitna (so).

m itni tezi se  
(so quickly)  
bəhut dhire  
(very slowly)

5.2.2.2.3. Linkers and Binders:

Linkers and binders are better treated as two sub-classes of adverbial groups - rather adverb-head adverbial

groups. They are different from others in the sense that they do not take any modifiers. Nor are they marked by any postpositions. Some of the common items are:

Linkers

əwr (and)

əthva }  
ya } (or)  
evə }

kintu }  
lekin } (but)  
məger }

. . . . .

Binders

əger }  
yədi } (if)

jəb (when)

jəyse hi: (as soon as)

yəddəpi ((al)though)

kəčkı (because)

jəyse (ki)(as if)

. . . . .

As in English so in Hindi linkers may be further subdivided on the basis whether they operate at fixed places in clause structure or not. Those which have fixed positions appear initially in clause structure and those which do not have any fixed position may appear elsewhere as well.

Fixed-position linkers

əwr }  
tətha } (and)

ya }  
əthva } (or)

kintu }  
lekin } (but)  
məger }

Non-fixed position linkers

phir bhı: (even then)

təb (then)

isliye (therefore)

Binders provide a morphological clue, so to say, to dependent clauses operating at  $\beta$  in sentence structure. Although they usually appear initially in dependent clauses they may occasionally appear elsewhere as well.

For instance,

egle din subeh jeb srimeti: hawper jagi: (HN-12)  
(The next morning when Mrs. Hopper woke)

But, unlike linkers, binders cannot be classified on this basis because it is applicable to all of them.

### 5.3. Comparisons: the adverbial group



5.3.0. Figures in the texts:

The figures of the adverbial groups in the English and the Hindi texts are presented separately in the following tables:

Text	prep. phr.	advl. phr.	linkers	binders	Total
E N	535 34.1%	418 26.5%	381 24.2%	238 15.2%	1527
E P	478 40.8%	228 19.4%	201 17.2%	265 22.6%	1172

Text	nom.h.Agps	adv.h.Agps	linkers	binders	Total
H N	418 21.3%	861 43.4%	382 19.4%	313 15.9%	1974
H P	431 30.6%	456 32.3%	197 13.4%	334 23.7%	1418

Before discussing them in detail a few general comments on these figures may be made from the point of view of register differences.

There is a considerable degree of consistency between the figures in the two English texts on the one hand and those in the two Hindi texts on the other. The percentage of prepositional phrases and binders is greater in EP than in EN whereas that of adverbial phrases and linkers is greater in EN than in EP. Practically the same holds good in the two Hindi texts as well.<sup>9</sup> Indeed, there is not much divergence in the relative difference in the four categories between the two English texts on the one hand and in their

corresponding categories between the two Hindi texts on the other.

5.3.1. Prepositional Phrases:

Prepositional phrases (prep. phrs.) in English and nominal-head adverbial groups (nom.-h agps.) in Hindi may be taken as corresponding categories because many prep. phrs., though by no means all, are translated as nom.-h agps.

Examples:

in the world (EN-27)

is duniya mẽ (HN-17)

(in this world)

in succeeding chapters (EP-17)

egle ædhhyayõ mẽ (HP-9)

(in succeeding chapters)

from my poor description (EN-26)

mere sadharen vivren se (HN-16)

(from my poor description)

from the economic point of view (EP-20)

arthik drishti se (HP-12)

(from the economic point of view)

on the sofa (EN-17)

sofe per (HN-6)

(on the sofa)

on the assumption (EP-17)

is adhar per (HP-10)

(on this assumption)

But prep. phrs. (in English) may also be translated as  
adv.-h agps (in Hindi).

Examples:

With a jerk	(EN-21)
ek jhēṭke ke sath	(HN-10)
(With a jerk)	
against this	
iske virndhdh	
(against this)	
for individuals	(EP-18)
vyektiyō ke liye	(HP-11)
(for individuals)	
beneath us	(EN-31)
hemare niche	(HN-19)
(beneath us)	

Accepting both (nom.-h agps and adv.-h agps) as possibilities for the translation of prepositional phrases, restrictions and conditions can be brought in whereby one is more likely than the other.

These restrictions are related to prepositions: that is, prepositional phrases containing certain prepositions are likely to be translated as nom.-h agps whereas those containing certain other prepositions are likely to be translated as adv.-h agps. For instance, if the prepositional phrase contains the preposition in it is almost invariably translated as a nom.-h agp. Like others, this restriction is better regarded as operating on a more/less basis. However, some prepositions may display an either/or relationship, which is to be treated as a particular instance of the same more/less relationship. In

other words prepositions from this point of view differ in degree and may therefore be divided into various groups accordingly.

If the prepositional phrases contain the prepositions in, into, from and on they are nearly always translated as nom.-h agps. They are distinguished by the presence of different postpositions: mē for in/into, se for from and per for on.

Example:

into the bedroom (EN-21)

sone ke kemre mē (HN-11)

(into the bedroom)

(For examples with in, from and on see 5.3.1.)

The prepositional phrases containing for and since are also translated as nom.-h agps when for and since refer to "period of time" and "point of time" respectively. "Period of time" and "point of time" are ad hoc contextual meanings of these prepositions and may be illustrated by the following examples:

(1) for the last three years

(2) pichle lon tñ verjō se  
(for the last three years)

(3) for the last five days

(4) pichle pōe dino se  
(for the last five days)

(5) since last Monday

(6) pichle somvar se  
(since last Monday)

(7) since last September

(8) pichle sitēber se  
(since last September)



(2), (4), (6) and (8) are translation-equivalents of (1), (3), (5) and (7). for and since are not distinguished by different postpositions in Hindi; the same postposition se occurs in both cases. Indeed the postposition se may be taken as a translation-equivalent of the prepositions from, for and since given that for refers to what has been called here "period of time."<sup>10</sup>

English	Hindi
from	se
for	
since	

If the prepositional phrase contains for which does not refer to period of time (like for you, for me) it is translated as an adv.-h agp.

Now we turn to those prep.phrs. which are practically never translated as nom.-h agps. This happens when prepositional phrases contain prepositions like without, except, with, besides, about, like, after, against ... The prepositional phrases containing these prepositions are usually translated as adv. -h agps. The following examples are given as illustrations:

With me  
mere sath  
(with me)

without him  
unke bina  
(without him)

except that  
uske elava  
(except that)

about him  
unke bare mẽ  
(about him)

against this principle  
is sidhdhāt ke virudhdh  
(against this principle)

after three days  
tīn dīnō bad  
(after three days)

All these Hindi texts are instances of adv.-h agps. It is to be noted that because of such instances the percentage of adv.-h agps in the Hindi texts is fairly big whereas that of nom.-h agps, which may roughly be taken as corresponding to prep.phrs., is relatively small. (See p. 234)

Between these two ends, so to say, there are prepositions like to, at, through. The prepositional phrases containing these prepositions may be translated as nom.-h agps or adv.-h agps; more delicate classifications may yield further distinctions as to when one is more likely than the other. At the moment, however, we regard these prepositions as between the two ends. The following examples illustrate both possibilities:

prep.phrs. containing to:

- (9) ... spoke / to me
- (10) mujhse / keha  
(spoke to me)

(11) ... turned / to me

(12) meri: teraph/ murfi  
(turned towards me)

prep. phrs. containing at:

(13) at Palm Beach

(14) pambic per  
(at Palm Beach)

(15) ... looked / at him

(16) unki: or / dekha  
(looked at him)

prep. phrs. containing through:

(17) through constitutional methods

(18) samvidhanik padhdheti se  
(through constitutional methods)

(19) through the expression of his will

(20) apne sarkalp ki: ebhivyakti ke dvare  
(by the expression of his will)

(10), (14) and (18) are nominal-head adverbial groups and  
(12), (16) and (20) are adverb-head adverbial groups.

For the purpose of translation, therefore, prepositions  
may roughly be divided into three categories:

- i) those prepositions due to which prep. phrs. are  
usually translated as nom.-h agps
- ii) those prepositions due to which prep. phrs. are  
usually translated as adv.-h agps (and not as  
nom.-h agps)
- iii) those prepositions due to which prep.phrs. may be  
translated both as nom.-h agps and as adv.-h agps.

The following prepositions, taken from the text, have been arranged in these categories mainly on the basis of the present textual study.

prepositions	as nom.-h agps	as adv.-h agps	both as nom.-h agps and adv.-h agps
about		✓	
above		✓	
across		✓	
after		✓	
against		✓	
along		✓	
amidst		✓	
among		✓	
around		✓	
as		✓	
at			✓
before		✓	
behind		✓	
below		✓	
beneath		✓	
beside(s)		✓	
between		✓	
by		✓	
for			✓
from	✓		
in	✓		



prepositions	as nom.-h agps	as adv.-h agps	both as nom.-h agps and adv.-h agps
into	✓		
like			✓
on	✓		
outside		✓	
over			✓
since	✓		
through			✓
to			✓
towards			✓
under			✓
until		✓	
upon	✓		
with		✓	
within			✓
without		✓	

**5.3.1.1. Prep. phrs. containing compound prepositions:**

The following is a list of compound prepositions, taken from the text:

according to

apart from

as regards  
as a result of  
because of  
by means of  
by way of  
by virtue of  
in accordance with  
in the case of  
in common with  
in front of  
in spite of  
in terms of  
in the midst of  
in the wake of  
on behalf of

The list is by no means exhaustive but contains those items which occur frequently in the text.

In most cases prep. phrs. containing compound prepositions are translated as adv.-h agps though there have been a few instances where they have been translated as nom.-h agps. The following examples are given as illustrations: as adv.-h agps:

according to Greenidge	(EP-10)
griniz ke enusar	(HP-2)
(according to Greenidge)	

in the wake of Mrs. Van Hopper  
srimeti: hawper ke pi:che-pi:che  
(in the wake of Mrs. Hopper)

as the result of Individualist thinking  
vyektivadi: vicardhara ke phelsverup  
(as the result of the Individualist thinking)

On behalf of the group  
samuh ki: or se  
(on behalf of the group)

in front of the road  
sarak ke samne  
(in front of the road)

in spite of superficial variations  
bahye gheṭa-beṭhi: ke bavjud  
(in spite of superficial variations)

All the Hindi texts are adverb-head adverbial groups.

The prepositional phrases containing compound prepositions like by means of, by virtue of, by force of, are likely to be translated as nominal-head adverbial groups (though they may be translated as adverb-head adverbial groups as well.)

Examples:

by means of hard work  
kaṭhin perisrem se  
(from hard work)

by virtue of the authority  
is adhikar se  
(from this authority)

by force of habit  
adət se  
(from habit)

In such cases the postposition is invariably se.

Occasionally, such prep. phrs. containing compound prepositions have also been translated as clauses in the text.

Examples:

in spite of my youth and inexperience of the world  
(EN-15)

// kem umraki: awr amubhawhi:n hdi hue hbi: //  
(HN-5)

(even being young and inexperienced)

as regards the existence of other States (EP-14)

// jehā tek anye rajyō ki: setta ka sambōdh hey //  
(HP-7)

(as far as the existence of other States is concerned)

The Hindi texts are clauses. In such cases clauses are always conditioning clauses. (The present instances appear to be idiosyncracies of the translator because they can equally well be translated as adverbial groups.)

#### 5.3.1.2. Prep. phrs. having modifiers:

The following is a list of some of the common modifiers in the text:

only  
not  
never  
even  
midway  
next  
rather



Examples:

only in society

not for the first time

never for a moment

even to me

midway between the reception hall and the passage

next to ours

rather like someone

perhaps it might be useful to consider such instances individually since there does not seem to be any particular way in which prep. phrs. having modifiers are translated into Hindi.

In Hindi negation is possible only in the verbal group and so the translation-equivalents of not and never (operating at m in prep. phrs.) are selected in the verbal group.

For instance,

(1) A S P C Not for the first time / I / resented / the part that I must play in her schemes (EN-15)

(2) A O S P sēda ki: tērēh / unki: yojna mē hissa lena / mujhe / ēchcha nēhī legā (HN-4)  
(As usual I did not like taking part in her schemes.)

The translation-equivalent of not has been selected in the verbal group in (2). (The relevant items are underlined.)

The modifiers only, even ... etc. in prep. phrs. are usually translated as emphazizers in adverbial groups.

Examples:

(3) only in society (EP-18)

(4) sēmaj mē hi (HP-10)  
(only in society)

- |     |                                    |         |
|-----|------------------------------------|---------|
| (5) | <u>even</u> to me                  | (EN-27) |
| (6) | mujh se <u>bhi</u><br>(even to me) | (HN-15) |

(4) and (6) are nom.-h agps. containing emphasisors hi and bhi respectively.

The prep. phrs. containing modifiers like next, midway, right are usually translated as adverb-head adverbial groups.

Examples:

- |      |  |
|------|--|
| (7)  | next to me   |
| (8)  | mere bad<br>(after me)   |
| (9)  | midway between the hall and the passage  |
| (10) | hawl owr raste ke <u>bicobi:c</u><br>(midway between the hall and the passage) |

(7) and (9) have been translated differently. (8) can also be a translation-equivalent of after me : that is, the translation-equivalent of next to me and after me may be the same. (10) is an adverb-head adverbial group and the item at h is bicobi:c. The presence of the modifier midway in (9) has "its effect" on the selection of the item at h in (10); with midway it is bicobi:c and without midway it would be bic.

### 5.3.2. Adverbial Phrases:

Adverbial phrases in English are further sub-divided into

- i) those having the element h only
- ii) those having more than one element<sup>11</sup>
- iii) fixed phrases

Similarly adverb-head adverbial groups in Hindi are further sub-divided into

- i) those having the element h only
- ii) those having both m and h

The figures from the English and the Hindi texts are given separately in the following tables:

Text	h	mh + hq + mhq	fixed phrs.	Total
E N	318 76.1%	59 14.1%	41 9.8%	418
E P	173 75.8%	12 5.4%	43 18.8%	228

Text	h	mh	Total
H N	463 53.7%	398 46.3%	861
H P	174 38.1%	282 61.9%	456

According to these figures the English texts do not display any difference, in terms of percentage, in adverbial phrases having the structure h only. But there are differences in the other two types though their actual numbers are rather small. In the Hindi texts on the other hand both types of adverb-head adverbial groups display considerable differences.

5.3.2.1. Adverbial Phrases having the structure h:

Adverbial phrases having the structure h in English are usually translated as adverb-head adverbial groups having the structure h in Hindi.

Examples:

now

eb (now)

suddenly

ecanek (suddenly)

upstairs

uper (upstairs)

today

aj (today)

clearly

espejitah (clearly)

always

hemeja (always)

generally

samanyetah (generally)

There is indeed a very high degree of correspondence between the two. However, one point needs to be mentioned: the duplication of the same item in Hindi. A translation-equivalent of such an adverbial phrase may contain a duplication of the same item.

Examples:

hurriedly

jeldi:- jeldi (hurriedly-hurriedly)



clearly

saf-saf (clearly-clearly)

slowly

dhire-dhire (slowly-slowly)

In all these instances there is a repetition of the same item.

Although there is a high degree of correspondence between the English adverbial phrases having the structure h and the Hindi adverb-head adverbial groups having the structure h the figures in the texts display a considerable difference in their percentage. This difference can be accounted for by the following two reasons:

- i) There is no particular type of adverbs in Hindi which can be said to be corresponding to ly-adverbs like badly, happily in English. Consequently, they are translated in different ways. Firstly, some of them are translated as adverbs

quickly

jeldi: se (quickly)

happily

khufi: se (happily)

Secondly, some of them are also translated as adverb-head adverbial groups having the structure mh:

badly

mh bur: tereh (bad like)

nicely

mh echhi: tereh (nice like)

In both cases they may or may not be marked by the presence of the postposition se.

- ii) The low percentage of such adverb-head adverbial groups in the Hindi texts (relative to that of its corresponding category in the English texts) is also a consequence of the fairly high percentage of adverb-head adverbial groups having the structure mh. This, as said earlier, is mainly due to the fact that many English prep. phrs. are translated as Hindi adverb-head adverbial groups having the structure mh. (See 5.3.1.)

Thus in spite of a high degree of correspondence between English adverbial phrases having the structure h and Hindi adverb-head adverbial groups having the structure h the percentage of the latter is relatively low.

#### 5.3.2.2. Adverbial Phrases with more than one element:

It would be misleading to regard English adverbial phrases with more than one element and Hindi adverb-head adverbial groups having the structure mh as corresponding categories although many instances of the former are translated as instances of the latter. The reason is that the latter also covers translations of prepositional phrases, which, as we have seen, provide the bulk.

To recapitulate what has been said earlier three elements m, h and q, are needed for English adverbial phrases whereas only two m and h are needed for Hindi adverb-head adverbial groups. Items at q in English adverbial phrases are usually translated as separate adverbial groups, rather adverb-head adverbial groups having the structure h. This, of course, does not apply to clauses at q in examples like as clearly

as he could.

Examples:

(1) SPA She / laughed / awkwardly indeed

(2) SAAP veh / secmuc / burī terēh / hāsi  
(She indeed awkwardly laughed)

indeed has been translated as an adverbial group operating in clause structure.

Items at q in examples like the following can only be translated as clauses (operating in sentence structure.)

(3) SP CA He / did / it / as clearly as possible

(4)  $\alpha\beta$  unhone utnī: echchī: terēh kiya // jitna  
sambhāw thā  
(He did it as clearly as was possible)

(5) SP CA He / did / it / as clearly as he could

(6)  $\alpha\beta$  unhone utnī: echchī: terēh kiya // jitna  
echchī: terēh veh kār sakte thē  
(He did it as clearly as he could do it.)

The translation-equivalents of as possible and as he could are clauses operating in sentence structure in (4) and (6) respectively.

Items at m in English adverbial phrases are very often translated as item at m in Hindi adverb-head adverbial groups as well.

Examples:

(7) mh very slowly

(8) mh behut dhīrē (very slowly)

(9) mh so quickly

(10) mh itnī tezī se (so quickly)

(11) mh so soon

(12) mh itni jaldi (so soon)

If ly-adverbs are translated as adverb-head adverbial groups having the structure mh, items at m are translated as sub-modifiers.

Examples:

(13) mh so nicely

(14) mh itni echchi terah se (so nice like)

(15) mh a little awkwardly

(16) mh kuch buri terah se (a little awkward like)

#### 5.3.2.3. Fixed Phrases:

The following is a list of some common fixed phrases, taken from the text:

after all

as it were

as such

as well

at all

at any rate

at first

at last

at least

at length

at most



at once  
at present  
by the way  
here and there  
in due course  
in fact  
in short  
in the least  
now and again  
of course  
on the contrary  
on the one hand  
on the other hand  
on the whole  
that is  
that is to say  
to and fro

Many of these fixed phrases are translated as adverb-head  
adverbial groups having the structure h:

after all - akhir  
as it were - mano  
at all - bilkul  
at last } - akhir (mē)  
at least }  
at once - jighre  
at present - ebhi  
in due course - semey per  
in fact - vestuteh/ vastev mē

in short - sãgchep mẽ  
on the whole - samanyeteh  
that is }  
that is to say } - mano  
of course - nisãdeh

Some of them are translated as adverb-head adverbial groups having the structure mh:

as such - is tereh mh  
on the contrary - iske pretikh:l mh  
on the one hand - ek or/ ek tereph mh  
on the other hand - du:sri or/ du:sri: tereph mh

There are some items in Hindi, which are fixed items and are also translation-equivalents of some of these fixed phrases:

at any rate }  
at least } - kem se kem  
at most - edhik se edhik/ jyada se jyada  
here and there - jehã tehã/ yehã vohã  
now and again - jeb-teb  
to and fro - idher-udher

They are fixed items because no change either in the sequence of items or the items themselves is possible.

Although these fixed items are somewhat similar to fixed phrases in English it is not helpful to set up a corresponding category of fixed phrases as such in Hindi as well. There are very few items and do not cover most of English fixed phrases. Thus there are three possibilities, shown by examples above, for translating fixed phrases from English into Hindi.

### 5.3.3. Linkers:

The following is a list of linkers in English along with their translation-equivalents in Hindi, established on the basis of the present texts:

and	{	ewr
		evam
		tetha
or	{	ya
		ethva
but	{	per
		perantu
		kintu
		lekin
		meger
then	{	to
		teb
		phir
so	{	eteh
		etev
therefore	}	isliye
even then	{	phir bhi
		tewbhi
		teb bhi
thus	{	etev
		tedenusar
		etderth
yet		tethapi

The linkers for and however are a little problematic from the point of view of their translation into Hindi. They

are problematic because they do not "have" equivalents in the sense in which those listed above have. In translation for is very often dropped: that is, a text containing for is translated as if it did not contain for.

Examples:

For it is a fever (EN-36)

yeh ek bimari: hey (HN-24)

(It is a fever)

For moral relations imply two parties (EP-14)

neytik sambodho ke liye do pekchō ka hona  
avejyek hey

(HP-7)

(Moral relations imply two parties)

Occasionally, for is translated by isliye which is also an equivalent of so / therefore:

For it is clear (EP-27)

isliye yeh espejt hey (HP-19)

Therefore it is clear

**But this** sounds unusual and is in fact the only instance.

however is usually translated by lekin and tethapi which are also translation-equivalents of but and yet respectively:

However we must consider (EP-30)

lekin hamē vicar kerna hey (HP-22)

(But we must consider)

These experiments were, however, without exception,  
failures (EP-41)

tethapi ye preyog bina kisi epvad ke esepheh rehe  
(HP-35)

(yet these experiment were, without exception,  
failures.)



These distinctions in most cases seem arbitrary.

As the lists on p.256 show there are, in Hindi, a number of items which are equivalents of only one item in English. For all practical purposes they may be looked upon as free variants though some of them may be distinguished on the basis of differences of register and style. For instance, both per and kintu are equivalents of but; but the former is likely to occur in an informal text and the latter in a formal one. Similarly the difference between kintu and meger (but) may be accounted for by dialect differences.

#### 5.3.4. Binders:

It would be helpful to divide binders in English as well as their equivalents in Hindi in three groups depending on whether they operate in conditioning clauses or additioning clauses or reported clauses.

##### 1) in conditioning clauses:

as	jaysa
as if	mano
although	yeddepi
though	
as soon as	je3hi:
the moment	
the minute	
because	ke3oki
for	

even if }	yedi
if }	eger
in so far as }	jehā tek
as far as }	
since	cūki
until	tebtek
unless	jēbtek
when	jēb
whenever	jēb bhi
just as	thik jeyse
where	jehā

ii) in additioning clauses:

who }	jo
which }	
by which }	jisse
from which }	
into which	jismē

iii) in reported clauses:

that }	kī
if }	
whether }	
what }	

This equivalence, as set up here, is an abstraction from the different occurrences of these items. For instance, practically all occurrences of when can be translated by jēb and thus it can be said that when and jēb are equivalents.

## CHAPTER 6

### THE VERBAL GROUP

#### 6.1. The verbal group in English



6.1.1. The place of operation:

The verbal group is that class of the unit group which operates at the element P in clause structure. The exponential relation between the element P and the class verbal group is bi-unique; that is, P is expounded by the verbal group and conversely the verbal group operates at P.

6.1.2. Systems carried by the verbal group:

6.1.2.1. Status:

Verbal groups "make a choice which relates to the status of the predicator in the clause and the status of the clause in the sentence ... many clauses are bound by the presence of a non-finite verb in them; similarly none of the exponents of contain a non-finite verb."<sup>1</sup> The terms in this system are "finite" and "non-finite."

Examples: (The relevant items are underlined.)

Finite Vgp:

I think ...

he realized ...

I'll see you tomorrow ...

I was very rude ...

Non-finite vgps are of three types:

Examples:

I tried to think ...  
... pushing back his chair ...  
... lost long ago ...

Any further classifications of non-finite verbal groups are not considered necessary for the present work. In the case of there being more than one predicator in a clause<sup>2</sup> only the first predicator may be finite.

6.1.2.1.1. Imperative/Indicative:

Finite verbal groups are either "imperative" or "indicative". Imperative verbal groups are those in imperative clauses.

Examples:

Imperative:

Bring it down to me right away  
Go upstairs

Indicative:

I want you ...  
... the car could climb ...  
I knew ...

6.1.2.1.1.1. Modalized/Non-modalized:

Indicative verbal groups may or may not select modals  
(could, would, should, may, might, ought to, need, dare, used to)

Examples:

With modals:

We may say ...

I must go ...

The nurse would give ...

Without modals:

he had gone ...

I looked at him ...

I know ...

6.1.2.1.1.2. Aspect:

Indicative verbal groups also select from the system of aspect: that is, they are either perfective or non-perfective. Perfective verbal groups are marked by the presence of have + the past participle form of the lexical verb.<sup>3</sup> That is to say -

have	}	+ v <sup>n</sup>
has		
had		

(where v<sup>n</sup> is the past participle form of the lexical verb.)

Examples:

Perfective vgps:

you've seen ...

We had known ...

he has obtained ...

Non-perfective vgps:

I suppose ...

I am working ...

he gave ...

#### 6.1.2.1.1.3. Progressive/Non-progressive:

Both perfective and non-perfective verbal groups may be either progressive or non-progressive. Progressive verbal groups are marked by the presence of ing in the lexical verb.

Examples:

non-perfective, non-progressive:

I know ...

he writes ...

non-perfective, progressive:

She was working ...

he is reading ...

perfective, non-progressive:

I have eaten ...

She has left ...

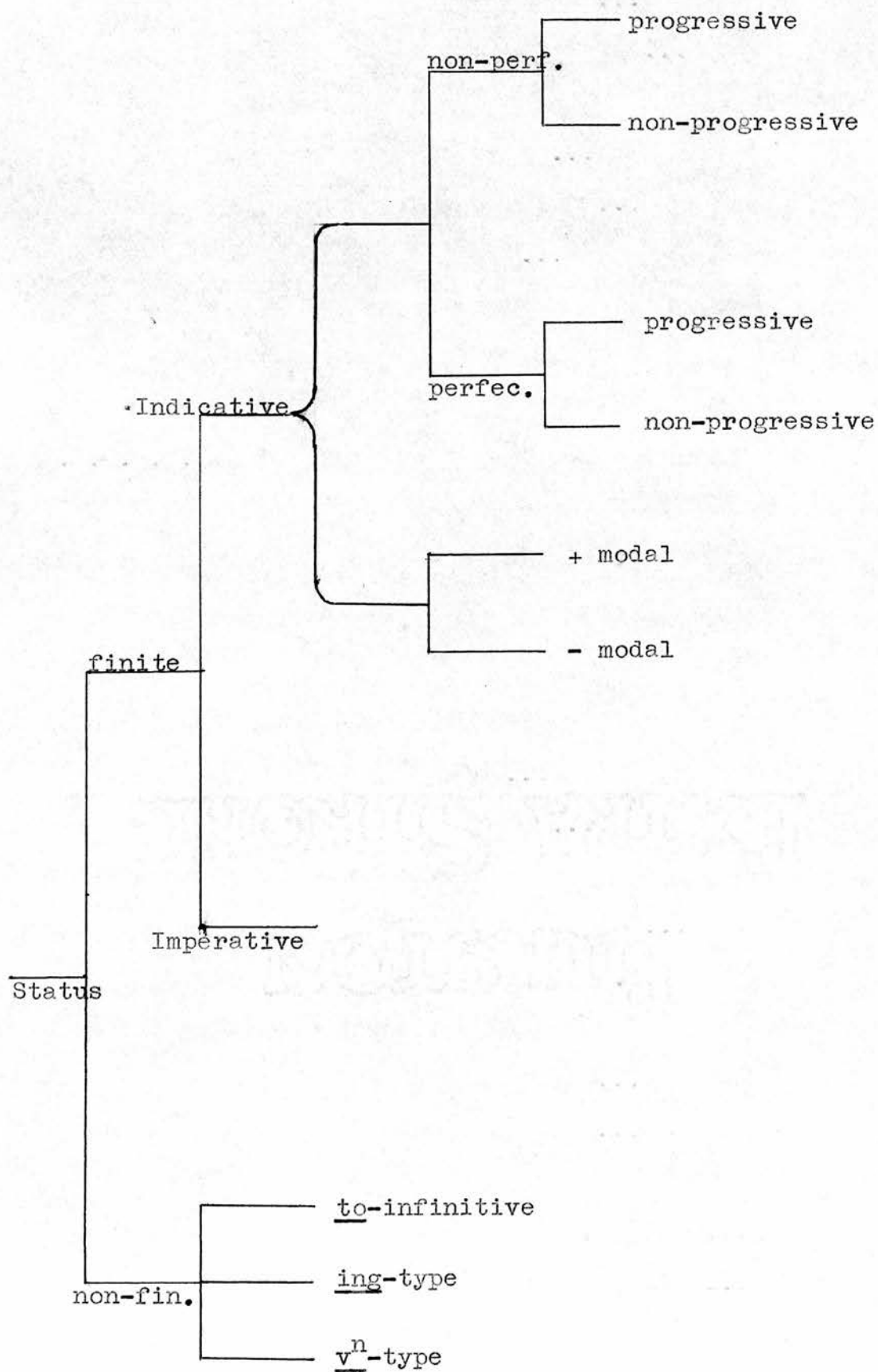
perfective, progressive:

I have been running ...

He has been working ...

All these systems may be diagrammatically summarized as follows:





#### 6.1.2.2. Polarity:

The system of polarity has two terms "positive" and "negative"; the latter is marked by the presence of the negative particle n't/not following the first word in the verbal group.

Examples:

Positive:

The nurse would give ...

I had trespassed ...

the State contains ...

Negative:

you can't sit ...

it doesn't matter ...

he may not know ...

it won't get better ...

The exponent of the negative is usually n't but may also be not (unstressed). Never may also occur in the verbal group<sup>4</sup> but is outside the system of polarity.

#### 6.1.2.3. Contrastiveness:

The terms in the system of contrastiveness are "contrastive" and "non-contrastive"; the former is a marked term and is expounded by tonicity in spoken language.<sup>5</sup>

However, in written English, the following may be taken as exponents of the contrastive verbal group:

- i) the presence of do/does/did as a group initiator
- ii) *italic*
- iii) underlining

(Since the text is a written one we are not concerned with the phonological exponent of contrastiveness.)

Examples:

Contrastive:

I do believe

He did say

He could have gone

Non-Contrastive:

I believe

He said

He could have gone

It is to be noted, however, that the presence of do/does/did in negative verbal groups is not to be taken as an exponent of the contrastive because their presence is obligatory for the negative (given that the verbal group is expounded by the lexical verb only).

#### 6.1.2.4. Tense:

There are three terms; "past", "present" and "future".<sup>6</sup>

Terms	Exponents
Past	was, were, had, did, and lexical verb forms like <u>took</u> , <u>ate</u> , <u>worked</u>
Present	am, is, are, do, does, and lexical verb forms like <u>eat(s)</u> , <u>take(s)</u>
Future	will, shall, going, to

#### 6.1.2.5. Voice:

There are two terms in the system of voice: "active" and "passive". The active verbal group may be regarded as unmarked and the passive verbal group as marked; the latter is marked by the presence of the verb to be + the past participle form of the lexical verb. That is,

the verb to be +  $v^n$

Examples:

Active vgp:

He was pondering

He drinks

He realized

Passive vgp:

He was beaten

She was drowned

... this claim can be sustained



## 6.2. The verbal group in Hindi



participials:           dəwɾta hua }  
                          dəwɾti: hui: } (running)  
                          dəwɾte hue }

infinitivals:           jana (to go)

The distinguishing features of these types are that conjunctivals are marked by the presence of kər, participials of hua/hui/hue and infinitivals of na.<sup>7</sup>

#### 6.2.2.1.1. Indicative/Imperative:

(As English) Examples:

indicative vgps:

səmjha (understood)  
kha rəha hũ: (am eating)  
jaũga (will go)

Imperative verbal groups are either honorific and non-honorific.<sup>8</sup>

Examples:

honorific:

jaiye (please go)  
khaiye (please eat)

. . . . .

Non-honorific:

jao (go)  
khao (eat)

Honorifics are marked by the presence of ye and non-honorifics of o.

6.2.2.1.1.1. Aspect:

The system, applicable to indicative verbal groups, has two terms: perfective and non-perfective.

Examples:

Perfective:

dekhi: thi: (had seen)

tay nehī kiya hey (haven't decided)

dekha hey (have seen)

Non-perfective:

rekh liya (kept)

samajhti: hū (understand)

janti: ho (know)

6.2.2.1.1.1.1. Progression:

Non-perfective verbal groups may be either progressive or non-progressive.

Examples:

Progressive:

keh raha tha (was saying)

bhul rāhe hōy (are forgetting)

de rahi: hū (am giving)

Non-progressive:

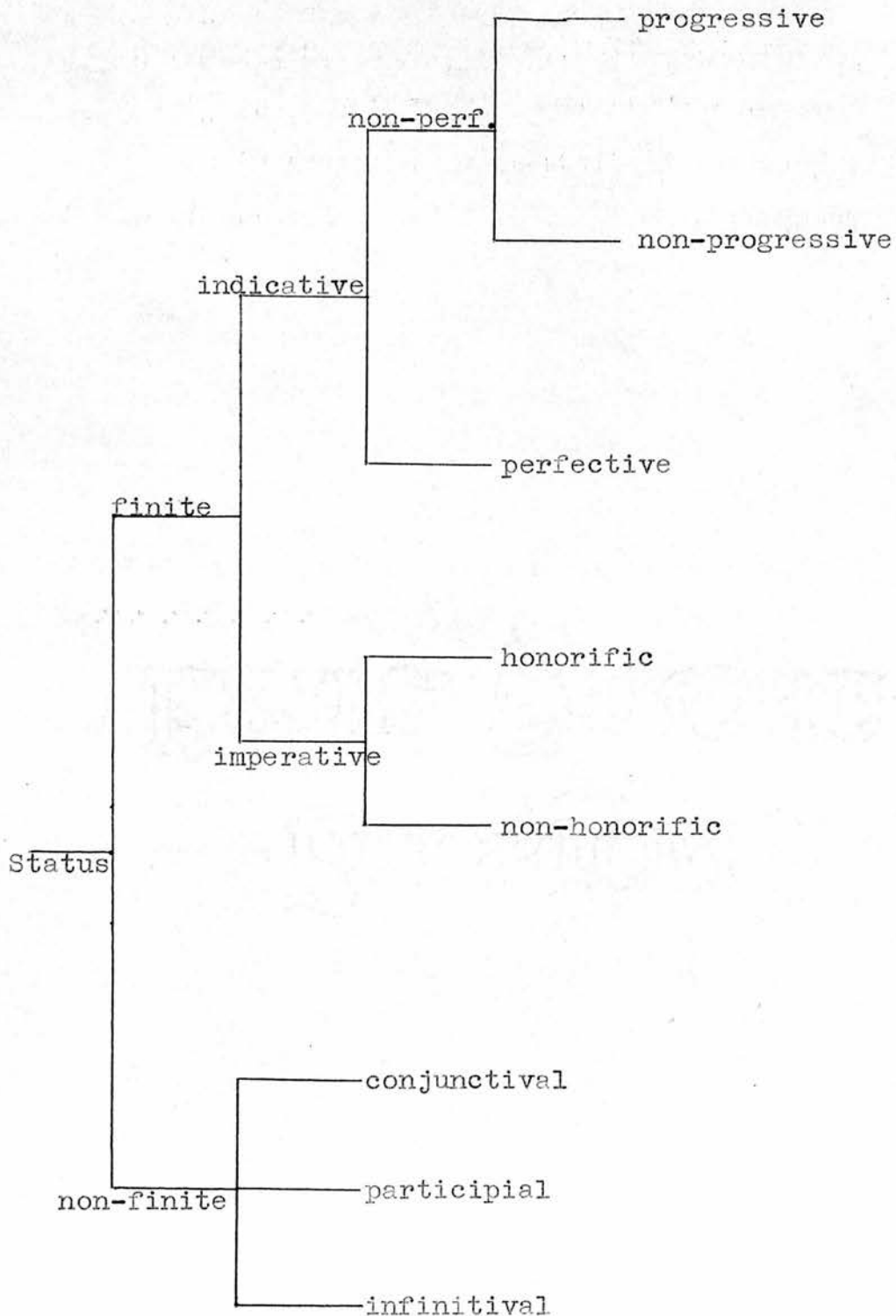
dikhate hōy (show)

bole (spoke)



Progressive verbal groups are marked by the presence of reha/rehe/reh followed by the verb to be.

**Diagrammatic Summary:**



6.2.2.2. Tense:

(As English) terms: "past", "present", "future".

Examples:

past:

gaya (went)

gaya tha (had gone)

ja raha tha (was going)

. . . . .

present:

khata hey (eats)

kha raha hey (is eating)

khaya hey (has eaten)

. . . . .

future:

jaūga (will go)

pehūga (will read)

. . . . .

6.2.2.3. Polarity:

(As English) terms: "positive" and "negative".

Negative verbal groups are marked by the presence of  
ne / nehī / met.

Examples:

positive:

jao (go)

aega (will / shall come)

geya tha (had gone)

negative:

nehf aega (won't come)

neaya (didn't come)

met jao } (don't go)

ne jao }

It is to be noted that the negative particle met is possible only in imperative verbal groups, which may take ne / nehf as well.

#### 6.2.2.4. Voice:

(As English) terms: "active" and "passive".

Passive verbal groups are marked by the presence of the verb jana.

Examples:

active vgps:

khata hũ (eat)

khya tha (had eaten)

khaega (will eat)

passive vgps:

khaya jata hey (is eaten)

khaya geya tha (was eaten)

khaya jaega (will be eaten)

In passive verbal groups two things are to be noted:

i) the verb jana has the following forms:

ja, jata, jati, jate

geya, geye, gei

Their choice is restricted by "tense", "number", "person" and "gender".

ii) the verb jana is preceded by the lexical verb ending in a/e/i.

#### 6.2.2.5. Contrastiveness:

(As English) terms: "non-contrastive" and "contrastive".

Contrastive verbal groups are marked by the presence of the emphasisors hi, bhi and to.

Examples:

non-contrastive:

kha reha tha (was eating)

jao (go)

perha hey (have read)

Contrastive:

kha hi reha tha (was eating)

jao bhi (go)

perha bhi hey (have read)

The principle of double selection is the same as in the nominal group and the adverbial group: that is, one of them is either hi or bhi and the other to.



6.2.2.6. Person:

There are three terms in the system of person: 1st person, 2nd person and 3rd person.

Examples:

1st person:

māy/ khata hū (I eat)

māy/ kha rēha hū (I am eating)

2nd person:

tum/ khate ho (you eat)

tum/ kha rēhe ho (you are eating)

3rd person:

vēh/ khata hey (He eats)

vēh/ kha rēha hey (He is eating)

They are marked by different inflections (underlined).

6.2.2.7. Number:

The terms in the system are "singular" and "plural", which are marked by different inflections.

Examples: (The relevant items are underlined).

Singular	Plural
māy khate <u>hū</u> (I eat)	ve khate <u>hōy</u> (They eat)
māy khata <u>tha</u> (I ate)	ve khate <u>the</u> (They ate)
māy khaūga (I'll eat)	ve khaēge (They'll eat)

It is to be noted, however, that the polite form is always marked by the plural verbal group.

6.2.2.8. Gender:

There are two terms in the system of gender:

"Masculine" and "feminine". They are marked by different inflections.

Examples:

Masculine	Feminine
veh khata hey (He eats)	veh khat <del>i</del> hey (She eats)
veh khata tha (He ate)	veh khat <del>i</del> thi (She ate)
veh khaega (He'll eat)	veh khaeg <del>i</del> (She'll eat)

### 6.3. Comparisons: the verbal group

### 6.3.1. Status:

The figures of finite and non-finite verbal groups in the texts are as follows:

Text		finite vgps	non-finite vgps	Total
N	E N	1002 (84.1%)	183 (15.9%)	1185
	H N	966 (73.5%)	249 (26.5%)	1315
P	E P	1011 (86.8%)	151 (13.4%)	1162
	H P	1558 (94.4%)	92 (5.6%)	1650

According to these figures the two English texts do not display any considerable difference in the percentage of finite or non-finite verbal groups whereas the two Hindi texts do. There is a difference of over 20% between HN and HP.

#### 6.3.1.1. Non-finite verbal groups:

The figures of the different types of non-finite verbal groups in the English and the Hindi texts are given separately:

Text	to-infinitive	ing-type	v <sup>n</sup> -type	Total
E N	79 (43.4%)	71 (38.9%)	30 (17.7%)	183
E P	98 (64.9%)	22 (14.5%)	31 (20.6%)	151



Text	Conjunctival	participial	infinitival	Total
H N	138 (55.4%)	89 (35.8%)	22 (8.8%)	249
H P	52 (56.5%)	29 (31.6%)	11 (11.9%)	92

It may be noted that in the different types of non-finite verbal groups E N and E P show some notable differences whereas H N and H P do not.

Although there are three types of non-finite verbal groups in both English and Hindi they may not be regarded as corresponding types (and it is for this reason that the figures have been given separately). Indeed all three types (to-infinitive, ing-type and v<sup>n</sup>-type) in English may be translated as conjunctivals in Hindi.

Examples:

- |   |         |
|---|---------|
| (1) ... <u>to finish</u> lunch ...            | (EN-15) |
| (2) ... bhojən se <u>nibəṭker</u>             | (HN-4)  |
| (3) ... <u>seeing</u> the disturbance         | (EN-24) |
| (4) ... golmal <u>dekhker</u> ...             | (HN-13) |
| (5) ... <u>flushed</u> with her success ...   | (EN-16) |
| (6) ... əpnɪ səphəltə se <u>ənəndit hoker</u> | (HN-5)  |

The three types of non-finite verbal groups in (1), (3) and (5) have been translated as conjunctivals in (2), (4) and (6).

However, v<sup>n</sup>-types and to-infinitives are more likely than ing-types to be translated as conjunctivals; ing-types are usually translated as participials.

Examples:

- (7) ... pushing back his chair ... (EN-20)  
(8) apni: kursi: ko piche ghakelte hue ... (HN-8)  
(9) ... turning to me ... (EN-23)  
(10) ... meri: or dekhte hue (HN-12)

ing-types of non-finite verbal groups in (7) and (9) have been translated as participials in (8) and (10).

to-infinitives are also translated as infinitivals.

Examples:

- (11) ... to mop the cloth (EN-24)  
(12) ... mezpo: ko sikorne ... (HN-13)  
(13) ... to lunch with me (EN-24)  
(14) ... mere sath khana (HN-14)

to-infinitives in (11) and (13) have been translated as infinitivals in (12) and (14). This is quite common in translating clauses with multiple phase.

6.3.2. Imperative verbal groups:

The figures of imperative verbal groups in the texts are the same as those of imperative clauses, given in 3.3.1. For this reason their figures are not given in this section and we shall be concerned with some of the problems involved in translating imperative verbal groups from English into Hindi.

As said earlier imperative verbal groups in Hindi are either honorifics or non-honorifics. This distinction between the honorific and the non-honorific is related to and determined by the relation between the speaker and the addressee. This relation may be described in terms of three ad hoc contextual categories:

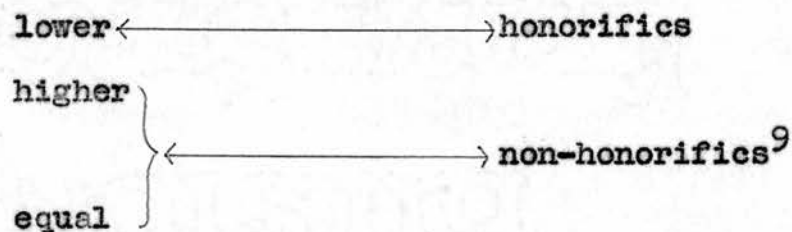
higher

lower

equal

It is dependent on whether the speaker has a "higher" or "lower" status than that of the addressee or an "equal" status to that of the addressee. A typical instance would be that of a father talking to a son (higher), a son talking to a father (lower) and a friend talking to a friend (equal).

The selection of the honorific or the non-honorific verbal group may be shown as follows:



Another dimension that of the formal/informal scale is also relevant to this point. People of equal status also use honorific forms if the relation between them is formal - for instance, school teachers or college lecturers talking among themselves.

Clearly, no such relations are relevant to English: that is, the English imperative verbal group does not indicate

these relations between the speaker and the addressee.

While translating an imperative verbal group from English into Hindi, therefore, a knowledge of these relations between the speaker and the addressee is necessary and has to be obtained from the situation.<sup>10</sup> The following examples illustrate the point:

(1) Leave that (EN-24)

(2) use chor do (non-honorific)  
(HN-13)

(3) Please, don't be polite (EN-24)

(4) itna si ftacar na dikhaiye (honorific)(HN-25)

(2) and (4) are translation-equivalents of (1) and (3); the verbal group in (2) is non-honorific and in (1) honorific.

(1) is by Mr. de Winter to the waiter and the translator accepts that the former has a higher status than the latter. (2) is by the nameless heroine of the novel to Mr. de Winter and she, being an employee of Mrs. Van Hopper, is supposed to have a lower status than Mr. de Winter.<sup>11</sup>

### 6.3.3. Polarity:

The figures in the texts are as follows:



	Text	Positive	Negative	Total
N	EN	925 (92.3%)	77 (7.7%)	1002
	HN	828 (85.7%)	138 (14.7%)	966
P	EP	938 (92.7%)	73 (7.3%)	1011
	HP	1354 (86.8%)	204 (13.2%)	1558

There is a remarkable uniformity in the percentage of positive and negative verbal groups in EN and EP on the one hand and in HN and HP on the other.

However, the percentage of negative verbal groups has gone up in both HN and HP. The main reason is that, as said earlier, negation in Hindi is possible only in the verbal group; unlike English it cannot be selected elsewhere (in the nominal group or in the adverbial group.) Consequently, the translation-equivalents of no and never, which occur in the nominal group or in the adverbial group, are selected as the negative particle ne/nehĩ in the verbal group.

Examples:

- |  |         |
|--|---------|
| (1) I had <u>no</u> wish                   | (EN-26) |
| (2) mujhe koĩ ichcha <u>nehĩ</u> thi       | (HN-16) |
| (3) ... there is <u>no</u> suggestion      | (EP-17) |
| (4) ... yeh sãket <u>nehĩ</u> hai          | (HP-10) |
| (5) I <u>never</u> found out               | (EN-28) |
| (6) mãýne kabhi: pẽta <u>nehĩ</u> lagaya   | (HN-18) |
| (7) ... the State can <u>never</u> act     | (EP-13) |
| (8) ... rajye kabhi: <u>nehĩ</u> kar sãkta | (HP-6)  |

The negative particles in (1), (3), (5) and (7) have been translated as the negative element in the verbal group in (2), (4), (6) and (8). Indeed even the negation implied in the binders until and unless is shifted to the verbal group.

Examples:

- (9) ... until I allow you (EN-23)  
(10) jəbtek məy apko ijajət ne duf (HN-12)  
(as long as I do not allow you)  
(11) unless we feel like it (EN-24)  
(12) jəbtek həmə iski: avəfyekta ne əmubhəw ho (HN-14)  
(as long as we do not feel its necessity)

#### 6.3.4. Voice:

The figures of active and passive verbal groups in the texts are as follows:

	Text	active	passive	Total
N	EN	977 (97.5%)	25 (2.5%)	1002
	HN	954 (98.7%)	12 (1.3%)	966
P	EP	837 (82.7%)	174 (17.2%)	1011
	HP	1349 (86.7%)	209 (13.3%)	1558

Though the actual numbers of passive verbal groups in the text are rather small there is, in terms of percentage, a considerable

difference between EN and HN on the one hand EP and HP on the other.

It is also to be noted that the percentage of passive verbal groups in both HN and HP has gone down.

Examples:

passive vgps translated as passive vgps:

- (1) ... the State is regarded (EP-10)
- (2) ... rajye ... samjha jata hey (HP-2)
- (3) ... the State is divided (EP-14)
- (4) ... rajye ... vibhajit ho jata hey (HP-6)
- (5) ... the bottle could be uncorked (EN-38)
- (6) ... kholi ja sakti (HN-26)

passive vgps translated as active vgps:

- (7) ... Society has been regarded as an artificial structure ... (EP-11)
- (8) ... samaj ek kritrim sastha hey (HP-3)  
(Society is an artificial structure)
- (9) ... I was reminded of a portrait ... (EN-17)
- (10) mujhe ... citr ka esmeren ho aya (HN-7)  
(I remembered a portrait)

There are occasional instances where active verbal groups have been translated as passive verbal groups.

Examples:

- (11) There is in fact a complete identification between liberty and law ... (EP-14)
- (12) vestuteh svetastarta tatha vidhi ke madhye purn ek samta esthapit ho jati hey (HP-6)  
(In fact a complete identification between liberty and law is established)

(13) ... one could buy companionship (EN-25)

(14) ... kisi ka sath bhi kharida ja sakta hai  
(companionship can be bought) (HN-15)

But the translation of active verbal groups as passive verbal groups is rather uncommon and is, in most cases, an idiosyncrasy of the translator. It is difficult to see why the translator has chosen to translate active verbal groups in (11) and (13) as passive verbal groups in (12) and (14). For they can very well be translated as active verbal groups.<sup>12</sup> On the other hand the translation of passive verbal groups as active verbal groups is not unexpected since passive verbal groups in Hindi, relative to English, are very uncommon.

#### 6.3.5. Aspect:

The figures of perfective and non-perfective verbal groups in the texts are tabulated as follows:

Text		perfective	non-perfective	Total
N	EN	103 (10.2%)	899 (89.8%)	1002
	HN	104 (10.9%)	862 (89.1%)	966
P	EP	79 (7.8%)	932 (92.2%)	1011
	HP	142 (9.3%)	1416 (90.7%)	1558

There are very little differences in the percentage of perfective verbal groups in the texts. Indeed, perfective



verbal groups in English are usually translated as perfective verbal groups in Hindi as well.

Examples:

I've seen pictures ... (EN-18)

mēyne ... tēsvirē dekhi: hēy (HN-7)

I had heard (EN-31)

mēyne sunā tha (HN-21)

... some English thinkers have declined ... (EP-15)

... kuch āgl vicarkō ne svīkar nahī kiya hēy (HP-8)

There are occasional deviations from this procedure: that is, non-perfective verbal groups have been translated as perfective verbal groups and vice versa. But such instances, in most cases, are idiosyncracies of the translator.

#### 6.3.6. Progression:

The figures of progressive and non-progressive verbal groups in the texts are as follows:

	Text	progressive	non-progressive	Total
N	EN	38 (3.7%)	964 (96.3%)	1002
	HN	80 (8.2%)	886 (91.7%)	966
P	EP	6 (.5%)	1005 (99.5%)	1011
	HP	15 (.9%)	1543 (99.1%)	1558

The figures are striking. There is a virtual absence of progressive verbal groups in EP and also in HP. The few occurrences of progressive verbal groups in these texts may, for all practical purposes, be ignored.

There is at the same time a considerable difference between EN and HN. There are two points to be noted in this connection. Firstly, most of progressive verbal groups in EN have been translated as progressive verbal groups in HN as well.

Examples:

- |                              |         |
|------------------------------|---------|
| (1) ... he <u>was saying</u> | (EN-18) |
| (2) veh <u>keh raha tha</u>  | (HN-7)  |
| (3) He <u>was pondering</u>  | (EN-19) |
| (4) veh <u>soc rehe the</u>  | (HN-8)  |

The verbal groups in (1) and (3) as well as in their translation-equivalents (2) and (4) are progressive.

Secondly, there is in Hindi a common area between the contextual meaning of progressive verbal groups and that of what has traditionally been called indefinite forms of verbal groups like khata hey (eats) in veh khata hey (he eats). In other words progressive verbal groups like khata hey (eats) and kha raha hey (is eating) may, in certain situations, refer to the same event and thus may replace each other. This may lead to the translation of English indefinite forms of verbal groups as Hindi progressive verbal groups and vice versa. In the text the former is more frequent than the latter.

Examples:

- (5) you forget ... (EN-27)
- (6) ap bhul rehe hēy (HN-17)  
(you are forgetting)
- (7) The sun shone (EN-21)
- (8) su rej cemək reha tha (HN-11)  
(The sun was shining)

The verbal groups in (5) and (7) are of indefinite forms whereas those in (6) and (8) are progressive verbal groups.

6.3.7. Tense:

The figures in the texts are as follows:

Text		past	present	future	Total
N	EN	591 (58.9%)	336 (33.6%)	75 (7.5%)	1002
	HN	590 (61.2%)	309 (31.9%)	67 (6.9%)	966
P	EP	55 (5.5%)	876 (86.8%)	80 (7.9%)	1011
	HP	97 (6.2%)	1392 (89.4%)	69 (4.4%)	1558

According to these figures there is a preponderance of the past tense in N and that of the present tense in P. The future tense is fairly uniform in all the texts. The figures in the English texts on the one hand and the Hindi texts on the other display a considerable uniformity and this is as expected since tense is closely related to time. However, there are deviations from this and some of the deviations may be discussed with reference to the following examples:

(The relevant items are underlined.)

(1) I told him that I did not mind very much (EN-29)

(2) mayne jebab diya ki iski: mujhe adhik chta nehf hey  
(HN-20)

(I told him that I do not mind very much)

(3) 'I'll drive you there in the car', he said, and  
would not listen to protests (EN-27)

(4) 'māy tumhē vehā kar mē pēhūcae deta hu?', unhone  
keha ewr mere anakani: kerne per kuch dhyan nehf diya  
(HN-18)

('I'll drive you there in the car', he said and did  
not listen to my protests)

(5) ... tomorrow I am probably driving to Sorpel  
(EN-20)

(6) kēl jaed māy sēwspel jaūga (HN-9)  
(Tomorrow I will probably go to Sorpel)

(2), (4) and (6) are translation-equivalents of (1), (3)  
and (5) respectively.

In English if the verbal group in the reporting clause is in the past tense the verbal group in the reported clause must also be in the past tense. (See (1)). But in Hindi it need not be so: that is, given that the verbal group in the reporting clause is in the past tense the verbal group in the reported clause may not be in the past tense. (See (2) and its translation in brackets). In such cases the past tense in English may be translated as the present tense in Hindi.

The underlined verbal group in (3) has been translated as the past tense in (4) and that in (5) as the future tense in (6). This is on the basis of their contextual meaning: contextually, the underlined verbal group in (3) refers to an



event in the past and that in (5) to something which is to happen in future. Hence they have been translated accordingly.

### 6.3.8. Modals:

In translation modals pose a serious problem. In Hindi there are only two items səkna and cahiye which may be regarded as translation-equivalents of some of the modals in English:

can	}	səkna
could		
may		
might		
should		cahiye

#### Examples:

... we <u>may</u> say ...	(EP-12)
... hēm ... keh <u>səkte</u> hēy	(HP-4)
I <u>could</u> be off there ...	(EN-27)
mēy ... reh <u>səkti</u> hū	(HN-18)
I <u>should</u> go there	
mujhe vohā jana <u>cahiye</u>	

(The relevant items are underlined)

It is to be noted that these two items səkna and cahiye do not cover all modals in English. Nor do they share any of their characteristics.<sup>13</sup> Thus it would be more misleading than illuminating to regard səkna and cahiye as modals in Hindi as well.

In translation modals are treated in various ways. In view of this they may be divided in different groups depending on the ways in which they are handled:

can	shall	ought to	must
could	should	should	
may	will		
might	would		

should has been placed in two groups because it is treated in two different ways.

As said earlier can, could, may and might are almost invariably translated by the item sekna, which inflects for "number", "gender" and "person". The various forms of sekna are

sekta  
sekti:  
sekte  
sektiḥ

Thus the Hindi translation-equivalent does not distinguish these four modals. Consequently, any distinction implied between, say, may and can gets "lost" in Hindi.

The translation-equivalent of shall, should, will and would is the bound morpheme ga, which is always suffixed to the lexical verb. This item also inflects for "number", "person" and "gender" and the various forms are

ga  
gi  
ge  
gḥ

Examples:

... we shall see ... (EP-9)

... ham dekh<sup>h</sup>ēge ... (HP-1)

... the individual ... should tend (EP-22)

... vyēkti ... esthan dega (HP-14)

Mademoiselle will have lunch with me (EN-24)

meydēm mere sath bhojēn kerēgi (HN-13)

The nurse would give her injections (EN-23)

nerse ... ijeckjēn legaegi (HN-12)

(The relevant items are underlined.)

Ought to and should are translated by the item cahiye.

Examples:

I ought to be flattered (EN-25)

mujhe ... kuppa ho jana cahiye (HN-14)

I should go there

mujhe vaha jana cahiye

The Hindi verbal group may not contain the translation-equivalent of must. must may be translated as an adverbial group operating at A in clause structure.

For instance,

I simply must show ... (EN-17)

mujhe / jērur / dikhane cahiye (HN-6)

(I should certainly show)

If must is translated as part of the verbal group it is taken as equivalent to have to.

For instance,

... we must consider (EP-30)

SP ... hemē / vicar kerna hay (HN-22)  
(we have to consider)

In this case must = have to and thus the translation-equivalent of we must consider and we have to consider will be the same.

The translation-equivalent does not distinguish the two.



PART III

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS

### 7.1. Introductory:

The study in the foregoing chapters is an attempt to show that translation is a proper subject of linguistic study and that linguistic theory can be applied to problems of translation. Indeed a study of translation cannot but be linguistic. The study in the chapters 2-6 presents two types of evidence for a comparison of English and Hindi. Firstly, there is the material furnished by the descriptions of English and Hindi. These descriptions at the level of grammar, with one set of categories, (i.e. in terms of one theory) bring out the likeness and unlikeness between the two languages. Secondly, there is a comparison of texts in English and Hindi, the Hindi texts being translations of the English texts. The bringing together of these two types of evidence or two sets of information is extremely important in a study of translation as well as in the field of comparative linguistics.

As we have seen in the preceding chapters the scale-and-category model is particularly suitable for this purpose and informations abstracted from an analysis of texts are most relevant to a study of translation. The fact that the choice of one from a number of possibilities is related to the operation of the text in situation can best be studied by a comparative analysis of texts in the source language and the target language. The present chapter deals with some of the main points arising out of an analysis of texts in English and Hindi. Though derived from English and Hindi they may be relevant to problems of translation and categories of language

comparison in general. Needless to say, more textual studies would throw greater light on these problems.

## 7.2. Axes of comparison:

There are, in the main, two axes of language comparison in general - formal<sup>1</sup> and contextual<sup>2</sup>. A comparison of formal (grammatical) categories of the source language and the target language is, in itself, not adequate to handle the problems of translation; it must be supplemented by a comparison of the contextual meaning of those categories. In other words translation must be compared contextually and not only formally. A comparison along these two axes together gives an insight into the nature of translation. Textual studies can provide not only a basis for such a comparison but can also give useful statistical information.

### 7.2.1. Artificiality in translation:

It is a commonplace to talk of an "artificial" translation and a "natural" translation. This distinction between the artificial and the natural depends on various factors: whether the translation "faithfully" reproduces "the spirit" of the original or not, whether it reads like an original or like a translation and so on.<sup>3</sup> These are vague notions and general impressions, which depend mainly on the subjective judgment of

a bilingual. But on the basis of a linguistic study of translation the term "artificiality" can be given a certain definite sense, which can be objectively studied and verified.

A translation is artificial if it displays a change in the "status" of at least one (grammatical) category with reference to its status in the description of that language.

The term "status" is an ad hoc term. It needs elaboration. The status of a category is the place it occupies with reference to other categories in the description of a language. Let us take an example. The passive verbal group in English may be looked upon as a marked term and is statistically less frequent than the active verbal group. The status of the passive verbal group in English is determined by the following two points:

- i) that it is a marked term
- ii) the relative difference in the frequency of the active and the passive verbal groups.

The status of the passive verbal group in Hindi is also dependent on the following two identical facts:

- i) that it is a marked term
- ii) the relative difference in the frequency of the active and the passive verbal groups.

But passives in English are far more frequent than they are in Hindi. For instance, expressions like I'm told, it can be done are not very uncommon. But on similar occasions the usual tendency in Hindi would be choose the active verbal group:



I'm told → { mēyne suna hey (I've heard)  
log kēhte hēy (They say)

it can be done —————>yeh ho sakta hey (It can happen)

(These and such other examples can of course be translated as passive verbal groups.<sup>4</sup>) The fact that passives are much less frequent in Hindi than they are in English is an important point and brings about a difference in the status of the passive verbal group in English and Hindi. That is to say, the status of the passive verbal group in English and Hindi is not the same. If all occurrences of passives in a given English text are translated as passives in Hindi the translation would sound stilted and would cause a certain degree of artificiality. The concept of artificiality as explained here is dependent on various categories and is therefore variable in degree. It is minimal if it is concerned with one category and increases as the number of categories affected by it increases.

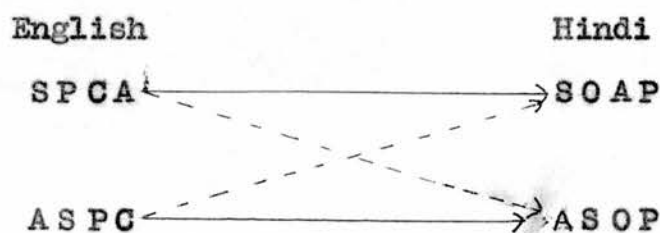
There are, however, two points to be noted in this connection. Firstly, the concept of artificiality is applicable only to those categories (in the source language and the target language) which have a certain degree of correspondence. For instance, the passive verbal group in English and the passive verbal group in Hindi are corresponding categories. This correspondence, as said earlier, is established on the basis of separate descriptions of the two languages supplemented by a study of translation-equivalents between them. Secondly, the problem of artificiality can be better examined in case of texts larger than sentences - say, a whole novel, a whole short story

and so on. One or two isolated sentences may not give sufficient evidence.

The point of artificiality may be further illustrated with reference to the marked and the unmarked structures of a unit. Let us discuss the problem with reference to the clause. The variations from the normal sequence of elements of clause structure (SPCA in English and SOAP in Hindi) are accounted for systemically in both English and Hindi. But there is a difference in the degree of restrictions on the possible variations in English and Hindi; the degree of variability is much higher in Hindi than in English. The difference is not only in the relative frequency of the marked and the unmarked structures in the two languages but also in the number of possible combinations of the elements of clause structure.<sup>5</sup>

Clauses having the structure SPCA in English are usually translated as clauses having the structure SOAP in Hindi. Similarly clauses having the structure ASPC in English are translated as clauses having the structure ASOP in Hindi. But since variations are quite common in Hindi a few clauses having the structure SPCA in English may be translated as clauses having the structure ASOP in Hindi and also a few ASPC in English as SOAP in Hindi.

Diagrammatically,



(Broken lines indicate that such translations are relatively less frequent than the ones indicated by straight lines.)

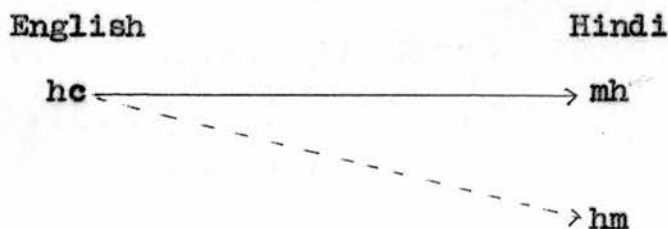
Though A S P C and A S O P are both marked structures in English and Hindi respectively the relative difference between S P C A and A S P C in English on the one hand S O A P and A S O P in Hindi on the other is not the same. There is a difference in the degree of "markedness", so to say. That is,

SPCA : A S P C (in English)  $\neq$  SOAP : A S O P (in Hindi)

The problem is also important at the sentence rank. In both English and Hindi the structures  $\alpha\beta$  and  $\beta\alpha$  are possible and in both  $\alpha\beta$  is more frequent than  $\beta\alpha$ . But the relative difference in the frequency of  $\alpha\beta$  and  $\beta\alpha$  in the two languages is not the same;  $\beta\alpha$  is relatively more frequent in Hindi than in English. It can therefore be said that

$\alpha\beta : \beta\alpha$  (in English)  $\neq$   $\alpha\beta : \beta\alpha$  (in Hindi)

The problem at the group rank, though not so important may also be mentioned. In Hindi adverbial group structure allows occasional variations in the sequence of its elements<sup>6</sup>. For instance, adverbial groups like without him, on the table may be translated as adverbial groups having the structure mh or hm.<sup>7</sup> That is,



But the problem is not so complicated in the adverbial group because, firstly, hm in Hindi is rare and, secondly, no change in the sequence of elements of adverbial group structure in

English is possible.<sup>8</sup>

To sum up, as shown with reference to examples above, the status of a category may be different in the source language and the target language. This is an important point and needs to be investigated in a study of translation. For instance, if all sentences having the structure  $\alpha\beta$  in a given English text are translated as sentences having the structure  $\alpha\beta$  in Hindi as well, the translation would to a certain extent, deviate from "the internal pattern" of Hindi and would lead to a certain degree of artificiality. In other words the translation would display an influence of the original as far as this particular feature is concerned. For this reason the translation would appear stilted. This may be a result of the translator's attempt to follow "the letter" of the original.

The conflict between "the letter" and "the spirit" - whether to follow "the letter" of the original or "the spirit" of the original - can be accounted for by this concept of artificiality. But it needs to be emphasized that large-scale textual studies alone can provide a greater insight into this concept and more precision in its use and application. Translations need to be compared, categories (of the source language and the target language) related to investigate the extent to which a given category of the source language can cause artificiality in a text in the target language.



### 7.3. Register differences:

As said earlier, register differences must be taken into account in a theoretical study of translation. It needs no justification to say that the problems of translating a scientific text on the one hand and a novel on the other from English into Hindi are considerably different. Between these extremes, so to say, there are useful and relevant register differences. Some of the main points arising out of register differences are discussed below.

#### 7.3.1. Contextual types of sentences:

The difference in contextual types of sentences between the political text and the novel under study, though obvious, is worth mentioning. This difference is relatable to a difference in the field of discourse. A political text such as the one under study does not usually provide occasions for conversations between two or more people and therefore "Command" and "Response" are practically ruled out. There may be a few questions, as there have been in the text, but they are usually rhetorical questions<sup>9</sup>. Thus sentences in a political text are mostly statements. A novel on the other hand often provides occasions for conversations and hence all the four (contextual) types of sentences occur in the novel under study.<sup>10</sup>

It may be mentioned at this point that contextual types of sentences, terms in the system of mood at the clause rank and the distinction between the indicative and the imperative

verbal group are, to a certain extent, related. Questions usually pre-suppose interrogative clauses and commands imperative clauses and imperative verbal groups. Thus the fact that sentences in the political text are mostly statements implies a corresponding absence of interrogative and imperative clauses and imperative verbal groups. We have shown earlier<sup>11</sup> how while translating imperative verbal groups from English into Hindi a knowledge of the relationship between the speaker and the addressee is necessary.

#### 7.3.2. Length and complexity of sentences:

By length is meant the physical length of sentences; and complexity is dependent upon length and other related factors, to be discussed below. There is, as we shall see, a considerable inter-dependence between the two and they are thus dealt with together. They are relatable to register differences and are most important in comparing translations.

In terms of (physical) length sentences in the political text (EP) are much longer than those in the novel (EN). The length of a sentence may be due to several factors: for instance, due to the number of clauses operating in sentence structure, or due to a large number of rankshifts. In the present case the length of sentences is due to rankshift. For the average number of clauses operating in the structure of compound sentences in the two texts is nearly the same - about three. Rankshifts affect both simple and compound sentences

and are, of course, concerned with both rankshifted clauses and rankshifted groups. In the political text (EP) 75% of sentences contain rankshifted clauses and practically all sentences contain rankshifted groups. This is not a feature of the novel (EN) where many sentences do not contain any rankshifts at all - either rankshifted clauses or rankshifted groups.

"Complexity" is a feature of sentences which are long on account of rankshift. The term "complexity" is used as an ad hoc term. The complexity of a sentence is dependent upon the number and nature of rankshifts: for instance, a sentence containing three rankshifted clauses is more complex than a sentence containing one rankshifted clause. If rankshifts involve depth complexity increases. Hence complexity is variable in degree in relation to both these factors.<sup>12</sup> The sentences of different registers can be distinguished on this basis; the sentences of the political text (EP) are more complex than those of the novel (EN).

This feature of complexity as explained here is extremely important in comparing translations. In translations it is not unusual to translate one sentence as two or more sentences. Generally speaking the texts display this tendency: 400 sentences in EN have been translated as 442 sentences in HN and 400 sentences in EP have been translated as 518 sentences.<sup>13</sup> But the difference between the two is considerable: in terms of percentage the increase in HP is about 30% whereas that in HN is about 10% only.

The complexity of a sentence and the possibility of its being split up into several sentences are inter-related: the more complex a sentence the greater is the possibility of its being translated as several sentences. As the degree of complexity of a sentence increases the number of sentences into which it is likely to be translated also increases.<sup>14</sup> That is to say, the number of sentences is proportionate to the degree of complexity. This point accounts for the big difference (in number of sentences) between HP and HN: the degree of complexity is much greater in EP than in EN. On the other hand if sentences are not complex two or three of them may be translated as one sentence.<sup>15</sup> This happens every now and then in the translation of EN.

### 7.3.3. The formal-informal scale:

The formal-informal scale is one of the dimensions for a classification of registers. But it would be misleading to assume that this scale operates on an identical basis in different languages. Joos recognizes five points on this scale for English<sup>16</sup> but although a distinction between the formal and the informal is quite clear in Hindi too, distinctions corresponding to those made by Joos are not recognizable in Hindi. In other words the five divisions recognized on this scale for English may be looked upon as roughly corresponding to the two distinctions between the formal and the informal in Hindi.



Diagrammatically,

English	Hindi
frozen	formal
formal	
consultative	
casual	informal
intimate	

In a study of translation and language comparison this diversity cannot be ignored; it raises a point of theoretical interest and a matter for practical considerations. The theoretical problem is the problem of correspondence between the five on the one hand and the two on the other. The practical considerations arise from this theoretical problem: how to maintain a distinction between, say, "casual" and "intimate" in translations as well.

It may be mentioned that this problem is important in varying degrees in different registers. A scientific text or a political text (such as the one under study) may not raise complicated problems in translation as far as this particular feature is concerned. For such texts usually display a considerable uniformity of style and consequently the situation is rather straightforward. But a novel is a typical instance where difficulties may arise. A mixing up of styles is quite common in a novel; all the five kinds of style suggested by Joos may occur and occur frequently in the same novel. Indeed it is often an important and necessary feature in a novel.

These subtle distinctions in style drawn by Joos are extremely illuminating and very helpful for a description of

English. But since Hindi does not make any such corresponding distinctions in style (at least as far as can be determined at this stage of our knowledge) these distinctions may be more of a hindrance than of a help in translation from English to Hindi. For this reason it might be useful to distinguish style in English too as "formal" and "informal" only. Undoubtedly, such a distinction is less refined than a scale of five but perhaps would be more suitable to "the needs" of translation.<sup>17</sup>

#### 7.4. Language differences:

There are two things to be noted about descriptions of the source language and the target language. Firstly, they may display non-corresponding categories: that is, categories which are exclusive either to the source language or to the target language. Secondly, corresponding categories may not exactly be "the same" and consequently in spite of them there may be deviations in translations.

In a (theoretical) study of translation a distinction between "contextual replacements" and "formal translations"<sup>18</sup> is useful. The two may or may not coincide. For instance, if a sentence having the structure  $\alpha\beta$  in English is translated as a sentence having the structure  $\alpha\beta$  in Hindi as well the formal translation and the contextual replacement coincide. But if on the other hand that sentence is translated as a sentence having the structure  $\beta\alpha$  (rather than  $\alpha\beta$ ) there is a discrepancy between them. Discrepancies between "formal

translations" and "contextual replacements" can be accounted for by

- i) formal grammatical differences between languages - that is, an "absence" of a corresponding category in the target language.
- ii) different formal-contextual relations.

Both these points, with reference to English and Hindi, are discussed below. The first point is discussed under the heading "non-correspondences".

#### 7.4.1. Non-correspondences:

The system of phase in English and that of aspect in Hindi, both at the clause rank, are typical instances of non-corresponding categories. For the former is exclusive to English and the latter to Hindi. However, for the purpose of translation "effects" of such categories of the source language on the target language need to be investigated.<sup>19</sup> For instance, what happens if clauses with multiple phase are translated from English into Hindi? And what features in the Hindi texts can be regarded as due to phase?

##### 7.4.1.1. Phase:

There are, in the main, four possibilities: that is, a

clause with multiple phase may be translated as

- a) one clause with a rankshifted clause at 0
- b) one clause with a rankshifted clause at S
- c) two clauses, one of them being a reported clause
- d) two clauses one of them being a conditioning clause
- (a) covers the bulk of clauses with multiple phase.

Examples:

- (1) SPFC He / began / to mop / the cloth
- (2) SOP veh / //mezpoʃ ko sikone// / lege
- (3) SPFC I / want / to see / this play
- (4) SOP mōy / //yeh khel dekhna// / cahta hu

to mop the cloth and to see this play have been translated as rankshifted clauses at 0 in (2) and (4) respectively.

(b) happens in the case of clauses with it as subject.

For instance,

- (5) SPFC This / is / difficult / to understand
- (6) SOP //yeh semejhna// / kehin / hai

(6) is a translation-equivalent of (5). The latter has been taken as equivalent to (7)

- (7) SPC //To understand this// / is / difficult

In other words (5) and (7) have the same translation-equivalent. Such rankshifted clauses either at S or at 0 always contain non-finite verbal groups of the infinitival type - that is, marked by the presence of na / ne / ni.

(c) is usually the case as a result of the presence of a reporting verb and Z.



Examples:

- (8) SP ZPC      I / expected / the room / to be / empty  
(9)  $\alpha\beta$       mēyne soca ṭhā // ki kəmra khali: hoga  
                    (I expected that the room would be empty)

the room to be empty has been translated as a reported clause.

(d) usually happens in the case of clauses of certain restricted types like the following:

- (10) SPCP      I / am / happy / to learn  
(11)  $\alpha[\beta]$       mujhe // jankar // khufi: hui:  
                    (Having learnt I am happy)

Such conditioning clauses always contain non-finite verbal groups - usually conjunctivals (that is, marked by the presence of ker).

These are the four main possibilities of translating clauses with multiple phase from English into Hindi. As we have seen they are restricted by certain conditions: that is, under certain conditions one is more likely than the others. It is to be noted, however, that these possibilities, like others, operate on a more-or-less rather than on an either-or basis.

#### 7.4.1.2. Possessives:

The problem of possessives may be discussed with the help of the following examples:

- (1) mh      John's books  
(2) hq      Books of John

These are two types of possessives in English. But in Hindi on the other hand there is only one type like the following:

(3) mh jawn ki: kitabẽ (John's books)

Consequently, (3) may be a translation-equivalent of either (1) or (2). But structurally (1) and (3) may be looked upon as corresponding structures. In both cases rankshifted nominal groups operate at d, a secondary element of m. The items at m in the Hindi possessives are marked by the presence of ka/ke/ki: according to "number", "person" and "gender". That is to say,

's —————→ { ka  
                                  ke  
                                  ki:

This correspondence can also be illustrated by the following examples:

(4) mh my books

(5) mh meri: kitabẽ (my books)

In both (4) and (5) deictics operate at m.

It can therefore be said that Hindi has no structure corresponding to of-possessives. Consequently, \_\_\_\_\_'s and of + Ngps are treated as the same and their translation-equivalents do not show any distinction.

#### 7.4.1.3. Certain verbal groups:

Let us look at the following underlined verbal groups:

- (1) Can you swim?
- (2) Yes, I can
- (3) Did you tell him?
- (4) No, I didn't.

The underlined verbal groups in (2) and (4) raise interesting problems from the point of view of translation. They are translated as follows:

- (5) hā, mēy teyr sekta hū  
(Yes, I can swim)
- (6) nehī mēyne nehī kēha  
(No, I didn't say)

(5) and (6) are translation-equivalents of (2) and (4) respectively. As is clear, they can only be translated with reference to (1) and (3) since the presence of lexical verbs is necessary in Hindi verbal groups. The problem is also the same in examples such as (8).

- (7) Can I ask you a question?
- (8) Yes, do.

The translation-equivalent of (8) would be

- (9) hā, puchh  
puchiye  
(Yes, ask)

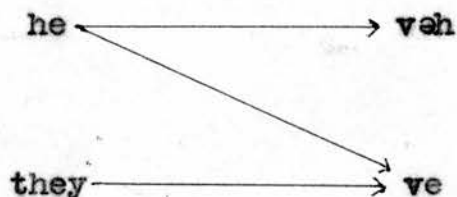
In (9) do has been replaced by the lexical verb ask present in (7). That is to say, a reference to (7) is necessary for a translation of (8). This is due to a "formal" difference in English and Hindi verbal groups; the presence of the lexical verb is necessary in the latter.

#### 7.4.2. Formal-contextual relations:

Languages differ not only formally but also in the relationship of (formal) categories to contexts. In other words different languages display different formal-contextual relations. This point can be illustrated with reference to certain categories in English and Hindi.

##### 7.4.2.1. The plural:

If the contextual meaning of the plural is described in terms of its component properties it can be said that the plural in English has the property of "more than one". This property of "more than one" is also shared by the plural in Hindi, which has an additional property of "politeness". That is, the plural in Hindi is also used as a polite form. Consequently, the translation-equivalent of he can be either vəh or ve where ve is a polite form. ve is also a translation-equivalent of they.



Thus both (2) and (3) may be translation-equivalents of (1):<sup>20</sup>

- (1) He has gone home
- (2) vəh gher hēya hēy
- (3) ve gher hēe hēy

The difference between (2) and (3) is that the latter is a



polite form whereas the former is not. At the same time (3) can also be a translation-equivalent of (4):

(4) They have gone home

Hence (3) on its own is ambiguous; it may refer to (1) or (4). So although "singular" in English can be translated as singular in Hindi, the former will have to be translated as "plural" when politeness comes in.

#### 7.4.2.2. The passive:

The passive, like the plural, is also used as a polite form, a property which is not shared by the passive in English. For instance, in a very polite conversation the following may occur:

kəb tək rəha gəya tha?

(How long was stayed?)

In such cases equivalents of English by + Ngps are dropped. Although this use of the passive is more common in spoken conversations than in written Hindi the point is worth mentioning.

#### 7.4.3. The summing up:

Descriptions of the source language and the target language, in terms of one theory, can show the places where the two languages are similar and different. At the same time statements linking (grammatical) categories to their contextual

meaning are needed. This is particularly important in the case of corresponding categories. The relation between a category and its contextual meaning in the source language may not be identical with that of a corresponding category and its contextual meaning in the target language. Textual comparisons can be a basis for such a study. Indeed in view of the fact that various possible equivalents are open to a translator textually-based studies are extremely valuable.

Textual studies also provide evidence for statistical informations, which help to set up the probability scale on the basis of frequency. Throughout the preceding chapters we have shown, with reference to English and Hindi, that deviations in translations (such as a translation of a minor clause as a major clause, of a simple sentence as a compound sentence, of a positive verbal group as a negative verbal group) can be related to certain formal (grammatical) features. They operate on a more-or-less basis rather than on an either-or one.

The present study, confined to English and Hindi, is an attempt to study problems of translation in terms of linguistic theory. Further studies along these lines will introduce not only refinements but also modifications, where necessary. What has to be emphasized is that translation is a proper subject of linguistic study and its problems need to be handled within the framework of linguistic theory.

FOOTNOTES

Footnotes - Chapter 1

1. "On Linguistic Aspects of Translation" in "On Translation" p.233 edited by Brower, R.
2. Ibid.
3. Catford, J.C.: "A Linguistic Theory of Translation" p. vii (Language and Language Learning 8, Oxford University Press)
4. Forster, L.: "The translation is a new product, that is to say that it is the result of a re-creative process." ("Translation: An Introduction" in "Aspects of Translation" p.23, Studies in Communication 2, The Communication Research Centre, University College, London.)
5. May, J. Lewis: "... there is ... no such thing as translation" ("Edinburgh Review" vol. 245, p.108)
6. "Linguistic Analysis and Translation" in "For Roman Jakobson", p.135 edited by Halle, Lunt and others.
7. Linguists have shown a considerable interest in machine translation (mainly because of its practical importance and also perhaps because of its implication on linguistic theory) but the field of human translation seems to have been mostly neglected. The subject has only recently begun to receive the scientific treatment it deserves. Research in machine translation throws light on some problems of human translation as well. Similarly, research in human translation may not be irrelevant to machine translation. The two may complement each other.
8. "Toward a Science of Translating" p.3.
9. Firth, J.R.: op.cit.
10. Ibid.
11. Allen, W.S.: "Relationship in Comparative Linguistics" in T.P.S. 1953, p.58.
12. Ellis, J.O.: "All these things make the comparison of a text and its translation (or, even more so, of translations into different languages) a method of comparative linguistics better avoided, other things being equal." ("On Comparative Descriptive Linguistics" in "Studia Linguistica in Honorem S. Mladenov" p.556).



13. Halliday, M.A.K.: "One important area for the application of linguistics is machine translation ... it has not always been obvious that M T (machine translation) is, among other things, applied linguistics." ("Linguistics and Machine Translation" in "Zeitschrift für Phonetik", vol. 15, p.145.)  
The sub-title of Catford's book "A Linguistic Theory of Translation" is "An Essay in Applied Linguistics."
14. Catford, J.C.: op.cit, p.1.
15. "Syntax and the Consumer" ("Georgetown Monograph Series on Language and Linguistics", No.17, p.13)
16. The most representative statement of this theory is Halliday's "Categories of the Theory of Grammar" ("Word", vol. 17, pp.241-92) - hereafter to be referred to "Categories". But the following works are also particularly relevant to this theory:
  - i) Dixon, R.M.W.: "Linguistic Science and Logic"
  - ii) Halliday, M.A.K.: McIntosh, A, Stevens, P.: "The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching"
  - iii) Halliday, M.A.K.: "Class in Relation to the Axes of Chain and Choice in Language" ("Linguistics", No.2 pp.5-15) - hereafter to be referred to as "Chain and Choice".
17. "Problems of Translation" in "Georgetown University Institute of Languages and Linguistics", No.8, p.77.
18. "Toward a Science of Translating", p.3.
19. Ibid, p.30.
20. "Linguistics and Machine Translation", p.146.  
W. Haas also holds similar views: "Language is no receptacle, and there is nothing to transfer." ("The Theory of Translation" in "Philosophy", vol. xxxvii, No.141, p.228)
21. P.L. Garvin also rejects the concept of a translation having the same meaning as the original: "Since by definition two languages constitute two different systems, the range of meaning of no unit in one can be assumed to coincide exactly with that of a corresponding unit in the other." ("Some Linguistic Problems in Machine Translation" in "For Roman Jakobson", p.183)

22. "Linguistics and Machine Translation", p.148.
23. "The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching", p.124.
24. "But the total result is two texts which stand in mutual relation: each is as it were 'a translation of' the other". ("The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching", p.123).
25. This is not to suggest that Ty is not independent of Tx; it is independent by virtue of being a text in Ly. But at the same time its relation to Tx and CTx has also to be borne in mind.
26. If it is a feature of the text to maintain secrecy about the sex of the writer as, for instance, in a secret service letter this secrecy cannot be maintained in its translation in Hindi.
27. Palmer, F.R.: "A Linguistic Study of the English Verb", p.117.
28. The problem, however, is not the same in case of different translations of the same text. The reason that Ty<sub>1</sub> and Ty<sub>2</sub> may both be good translations of Tx into Ly and yet may look quite different is that the respective translators have chosen to make different emphases etc.
29. Dixon, R.M.W.: "Linguistic Science and Logic", p.45.
30. "Transfer Grammar" in "International Journal of American Linguistics", vol. 20, p.259.
31. Chavarria-Aguilar, O.L.: "Transfer Grammar is a set of techniques for the teaching of language. It is essentially a structural comparison of two languages, presenting the structural relevancies of one - the language to be learned - in terms of another - the language of the learner". ("Lectures in Linguistics", p.105).
32. See 2.1. and 2.2., 3.1. and 3.2., 4.1. and 4.2.
33. "The subjects ... 'horse' and 'master' ... are in the nominative case". (Palser, E.M., and Lewis, R.T.: "A New Outline Grammar of Function", p.24).
34. "Systematic Description and Comparison in Grammatical Analysis" in "Studies in Linguistic Analysis", p.57.

35. Halliday, M.A.K.: "Syntax and the consumer", p.14.
36. "Linguistic Analysis and Translation". p.137.
37. "Noun and Verb in Universal Grammar", Language, vol. 28, p.296.
38. See 3.1.2.1. and 3.2.2.1.
39. See 2.1.5.2. and 2.2.3.2.
40. See 3.1.1.2. and 3.2.1.2.
41. "'Sequence' and 'Order'" in Georgetown Monograph Series, vol. 17, p.128.
42. Since the present study is confined only to grammar correspondence may be taken as a relation between grammatical categories of the source language and the target language.
43. See 3.1.2.4.
44. See 3.2.2.4.
45. Though an investigation from Hindi to English has not been carried out in the present study it seems that "effects" of "concord" are likely to be on the verbal group in English texts: objectival clauses are likely to have verbal groups of the form  
have +  $v^n$   
in their translation-equivalents in English.
46. See 5.1.2.
47. See 5.2.2.
48. See 5.3.0.
49. Catford, J.C.: "By "co-text" we mean items in the "text" which accompany the item under discussion". (op.cit. p.31. f.n.2).
50. In certain cases conditions may be determined by contextual features: for instance in contextual types of sentences (See 2.3.1.) and honorific and non-honorific imperative verbal groups (See 6.3.2).
51. Perhaps it may also be important for machine translation.



52. Firth, J.R.: "The treatment of languages in General Linguistics" in "The Medical Press" vol. CCXLII, No.8, p.146.
53. Ibid.
54. "The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching", p.77.
55. In the texts under study the dialect may be taken as constant: standard twentieth century English and standard twentieth century Hindi.
56. "The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching", p.93.
57. Ibid, p.90.
58. "The Five Clocks", p.13. Gleason also follows a similar line: "The basic language apparatus for this purpose is a system of speech types-keys, each of which functions in a specificable set of social situations. Five may be recognized: Consultative is the central one. Deliberative and oratorical lie on one side, and casual and intimate on the other." ("Linguistics and English Grammar", p.357). Apart from a few terminological changes Gleason wishes to keep speech and writing separate from this point of view.
59. "The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching", p.93.
60. Sinclair has suggested, in conversation, some modifications of and additions to these three broad dimensions along the lines of the following five parameters:

formal	——	informal
1-way	——	2-way
unseen	——	seen
considered	——	impromptu
written	——	spoken

These parameters are suggested mainly in view of a considerable overlap among the three dimensions ("field of discourse", "mode of discourse" and "style of discourse".) It may well be that formal features of a considered formal writing in one field of discourse may be closer to those of a considered formal writing in another field of discourse than to those of an



impromptu informal writing in the same field of discourse. Whether it is a (1-way) lecture or a (2-way) discussion, whether the speaker is facing the audience or not may bring variations at the level of form.

However, sufficient work has not been done on register in English and hardly any in Hindi. Till sufficient research has been done along these lines it seems useful to keep in mind all these factors in any ad hoc classification of registers.

61. "Can translation be mechanized?" in "American Scientist", vol. 42, pp.248-260.

Footnotes - Chapter 2

1. "Categories", p.253, f.n. 29
2. Firth, J.R.: "Attention must first be paid to the longer elements of text - such as the paragraph ..."  
("A Synopsis of Linguistic Theory" in "Studies in Linguistic Analysis", p.18, Special Volume of the Philological Society.)  
  
Halliday, M.A.K.: "English grammar, as far as it has been studied to date, seems to require five, though further statistical work on grammar might yield at least one more." ("Categories", p.252)
3. "Categories", p.251
4. Ibid. p.262
5. "Chain and Choice", p.7
6. It may be mentioned that similar phenomenon has been called "feed back" by Pike and "downgrading" by Hill. To quote Pike " ... a complex lexical item of a type which normally fills only slots of a high-level syntagmemic structure is found filling a low-level slot ... Such a situation occurs in the "phraseword" "the King of England's hat". Here the phrase "the King of England" is a high-layered lexical item grammatically structured with a high degree of internal tagmemic complexity. Yet the entire morpheme sequence is put in the slot preceding the possessive       's where normally only a low-layered structure would occur." ("Language in Relation to a Unified Theory of the structure of Human Behaviour", vol. 3. p.74.)  
  
"Downgrading" for Hill consists 'in a reduction of status, for instance, from that of an independent sentence to that of a sentence element within a larger sentence'. ("Introduction to Linguistic Structures", p.357)  
  
Hill who does not recognize any rank scale explains the phenomenon a little differently but he is certainly concerned with a similar problem. This is not to suggest that the difference between these models is just a matter of terminology but to suggest that a particular feature of language has been looked upon in fairly similar ways in different models.
7. "Categories", p.252

8. Bendor - Samuel, J.T.: "The Verbal Piece in Jebero", Supplement to Word, vol. 17, p.10.
9. Palmer, F.R.: "What is important is the recognition that grammatical categories are abstractions at the grammatical level. Grammar is not an extension of phonology and does not depend directly upon the results of phonological analysis." ("Grammatical categories and their phonetic exponents" in "Proceedings of the Ninth International Congress of Linguists", p.339)
10. "Categories", p.281.
11. While distinguishing, for instance, between defining and non-defining relative clauses, to use traditional terminology. (In terms of the scale-and-category model the former are called adding clauses operating in sentence structure and the latter rankshifted clauses operating in group structure.) For tone group and other phonological categories see the following articles by M.A.K. Halliday:
  - (i) "The Tones of English", Archivum Linguisticum, Vol. 15, Fascicule 1, pp 1-28.
  - (ii) "Intonation in English grammar", T.P.S., 1963, pp. 143-169.
12. "String analysis of Sentence Structure", p.7.
13. The translation-equivalent of this example has an orthographic sentence boundary:

marks ne is sidh dhāt ka jo vivreṇ kiya hey veh is prekar hey

The orthographic notation for sentence boundary in Hindi is a small vertical line (|).
14. Firth, J.R.: "A Synopsis of Linguistic Theory", p.7.
15. Ibid p.9.
16. This contextual classification is adapted from unpublished material by Sinclair, J.McH.
17. The description presented here is based on "A Course in Spoken English", 3. Grammar" by J. McH. Sinclair.
18. "Categories" p.253 f.n.31.
19. "Language 3" p.5 and 6.  
At this point Pike's level = Halliday's rank.



20. An alternative to this would be to accept dependent clauses as occasional exponents of  $\alpha$ . And this would mean cross-exponence. This principle of cross-exponence is accepted at the clause rank when, later in delicacy, the nominal group is recognized as operating at A and the adverbial group at S/C. (See 3.1.1) But because of the big overlap between the exponents of  $\alpha$  and those of  $\beta$  the recognition of cross-exponence would confuse more than it elucidated.
21. "Chain and Choice", p.11.
22. A major clause contains a predicator (+P) and a minor clause does not contain any predicator (-P).
23. For instance,  
 $\beta\alpha$  Happy in his work// he felt like a new man
24. For a representative list of reporting verbs in the text see 2.3.3.2.3.3.
25. The description of Hindi, followed here, is based on the one presented by Verma, S.K.: "A Study in Systemic Description of Hindi Grammar and Comparison of the Hindi and English Verbal Groups". (unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of Edinburgh, 1964) The places at which the present account of Hindi grammar is substantially different from Verma's have been mentioned.
26. In Hindi the symbols for question mark and exclamation mark are the same as those in English. But a small vertical line is used for a full stop.
27. Translations in brackets are mine (though they may sometimes coincide with the original.) They are not necessarily meant to be "good" translations or even "correct" translations. The main purpose is to bring out, as far as possible, the relevant point under discussion.
28. A minor point. This is relevant only to EP and HP. (For there are no chapter headings and section headings in the novel under study.) In the former section headings are followed by full stops whereas in the latter by colons.
29. Its original in EP has a colon, which has also been taken as a sentence boundary.
30. As this classification is based on and derived from situational components, discussed in 2.1.3., it is different from the one presented by Verma.
31. See 2.1.4.1.



32. op. cit. p.54.
33. All these examples as well as their translations are from Verma's thesis (pp.51-53). There are some minor changes in transcription.
34. p.42.
35. pp. 43-46.
36. He also allows the system of mood in sequential clauses but the system of mood is perhaps better restricted to independent clauses only. See 3.2.2.1.
37. A word about the label "additioning". It is clear that what has been called "the additioning clause" in Hindi differs from its English counterpart particularly with respect to its variations in sequence. For this reason a different name "relative" might in some circumstances be preferable. But for the purpose of comparison the same label in both languages has advantages (so long as there is no massive distortion) and hence the same label "additioning" has been retained here.
38. For instance,  
β< svēbhao ka jiddi// voh ēpnī bat pēr dēṭa rēha  
(Obstinate by nature he did not budge an inch.)
39. See 2.1.3.
40. See 2.1.3. and 2.2.2.
41. The choice, indicated by braces, is between the honorific and the non-honorific forms (of the verbal group.)
42. See "An analysis of some features of Indian English: a study in linguistic method" by B.B. Kachru (unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of Edinburgh, 1962.) As he has shown items like government, brother operate in different contexts under the impact of different culture.
43. A reference to a comparison of contextual types of sentences in EP and HP. Sentences in the former are mostly statements and a few questions with corresponding translation-equivalents in the latter. There is, at this point, a one-to-one correspondence between the two: that is, statements have always been translated as statements and questions as questions. There has been no instance either of "Command" or "Response" in the text. It is for this reason that it has not been considered worthwhile giving figures from EP and HP.

44. that is, more than .5 = 1 and less than .5 = 0

86.1 = 86

3.2 = 3

1.7 = 2

.8 = 1

.....

This method has been followed throughout.

45. This point will be discussed in some detail in case of the imperative verbal group. See 6.3.2.

46. N = EN + HN

P = EP + HP

47. About 50% of the simple sentences in EP contain rank-shifted clauses whereas not more than 15% of the simple sentences in EN contain rankshifted clauses.

48. The discussion of the quoted/unquoted speech is confined only to N. In EP there are very few instances of texts in quotes and those texts have always been translated in quotes in HP as well.

49. The figures include simple sentences in quotes of the following kinds -

(1) those which are not preceded by any reporting clauses -

Haven't you any family?

No - they're dead.

(EN-26)

These are quite common in conversations.

(ii) when there are a number of sentences in the same quotes -

"you know", he said, "we've got a bond in common, you and I. We are both alone in the world.

(EN-27)

50. See 2.1.5.2.2. and 2.2.3.2.3.

Footnotes - Chapter 3

1. "Categories" p.257.
2. Ibid p.263.
3. "Chain and Choice" (p.6): "... groups in English such as "this morning" operate in clause structure both as adjunct, as in "I came this morning", and as subject (or complement), as in "this morning promises to be fine" (or "I've set this morning aside for it.")
4. Quirk, R.: "Descriptive Statement and Serial Relationship" Language, Vol. 41, No.2, p.207.
5. Sinclair, J. McH.: "A Course in Spoken English 3 Grammar" (p.21)
6. "Categories" p.288.
7. This change from its normal position is accounted for by the system of Theme. See 3.1.2.2.
8. For the system of Mood see 3.1.2.1.
9. that is, Is Dora there?
10. Huddleston, R.D.: "Rank and Depth" Language, Vol. 41, No.4, pp.574-586. This linear recursion (both paratactic and hypotactic) is a structural relation and therefore possible at all ranks (except of course morpheme.) To handle this problem Huddleston suggests a set of supplementary units - clause complex, group complex, word complex and morpheme complex. The other units (sentence, clause, group, word, morpheme) have been called basic units.
11. Sinclair, J. McH. op.cit. p.33.
12. See 3.1.2.2.
13. In some clauses, as in the following, there may be three C:  
SP C C C They/elected/him/president/young.  
But such examples are very rare and there has been no instance in the texts under study.
14. Sinclair, J. McH. op. cit. p.38.



15. Ibid. "Its referent (whatever it refers to outside language) is usually the same as that of the subject, whereas in the other class of complement, the extensive, the opposite holds. The reference of an extensive complement is to something other than the subject ..."
16. See 3.1.2.4.
17. Linkers like therefore are rather mobile and may occur at different positions.
18. Here linkers like and, but have the rank of group. But they may also have the rank of word as in the following:  
... you and I (EN-27)
19. Sinclair, J.McH. op.cit. p.22.
20. Ibid p.35.
21. Object in Hindi, for all practical purposes, may be taken as a counterpart of complement in English. For the change of label see below (3.2.1.2.)
22. See 3.2.2.5.
23. See 3.2.2.3.
24. See 4.2.3.3.
25. See 3.2.2.5.
26. See 3.2.2.4.
27. ise or isko, mujhe or mujhko, use or usko ... etc. They are, in fact, free variants.
28. These names are traditionally used to distinguish the three types of non-finite verbal groups.
29. See 5.2.2.2.3.
30. Verma, on the other hand, recognizes Z only in minor clauses: "We may define the Z-element which can occur only in minor clause (i.e. clauses which have no P) and which is expounded by the class 'nominal' of the unit: group." (p.122) (My underlining) Thus he rules out Z in major clauses. If we accept this the following, then, would be two clauses:

iske sath yehi to perifank hey, // mishter de winter

(HN-8)

(This is the trouble with her, Mr. de Winter)

This restriction would proliferate clauses of very simple structure. To avoid such a situation, Z in this account



of Hindi grammar is recognized as an element of the structure of the clause - both major and minor.

31. Occasionally, however, the contextual type of a sentence is determined phonologically (or graphologically.)  
For instance -

mere khyal se tumhare newker ne tumhara saman <sup>think</sup>  
se lega diya hoga? (HN-9)

(Probably your valet must have arranged your luggage properly?)

It is a question because of the rising intonation, indicated by a question mark in orthography.

32. For non-perfect and perfect verbal groups see 6.2.2.1.1.1.
33. Since the political texts do not show any considerable variations in mood they have not been included in this discussion. This is expected because the mood selection is closely related to, and in fact influences the contextual types of sentences; most of the sentences in the political texts are statements.
34. The total number of clauses here does not include the number of minor clauses.
35. This feature is possible in any of the contextual types of sentence. That is, a statement may consist of two or more affirmative clauses and a question two or more interrogative clauses. For instance -  
What do you think of Monte Carlo // or don't you think of it at all? (EN-19)
36. Rankshifted clauses at C/O are not included in these figures.
37. See 4.1.2.1.
38. See 3.1.2.2. and 3.2.2.5.

Footnotes - Chapter 4

1. except in cases of rankshift.
2. This is one of a number of alternative descriptive methods. They may well be regarded as operating at S or C rather than rankshifted to nominal group structure.
3. Secondary classes may be either chain classes or choice classes. See "Chain and Choice", p.9.
4. Sinclair, J. McH.: "Grammar", p.57.
5. "So  $e^a$  occurs in front of  $e^b$ . At  $e^b$  we find "colour" adjectives with their own typical submodifiers. (Ibid, p.59)
6. Ibid, p.62.
7. Verma, S.K.: op. cit., p.164. It may be helpful to explain the symbols used by Verma -  
 $h^s = h$  (substantive)  
 $h^p = h$  (pronoun)  
 $h^{sc} = h$  (substantive - common noun)  
 $h^{sp} = h$  (substantive - proper noun)  
 $h^{scm} = h$  (substantive - common noun - mass noun)  
 $h^{sc^c} = h$  (substantive - common noun - count noun)  
 $h^{ps} = h$  (pronoun-subjective)  
 $h^{po} = h$  (pronoun - objective)
8. Verma on the other hand recognized "noun" as the primary class operating at h and "substantive" as a secondary class derived from "noun". As the area of similarity between English and Hindi at this point is very considerable the terminological identity is maintained here.
9. See 4.2.3.
10. Verma, S.K.: op.cit, p.135, the symbols are -

- $d^p = d$  (possessives)  
 $d^{\cancel{p}} = d$  (non-possessives)  
 $d^{p^g} = d$  (possessives-genitivals)  
 $d^{p^p} = d$  (possessives - personal possessives)  
 $d^{p^d} = d$  (non-possessives - deictic pronouns)  
 $d^{p^i} = d$  (non-possessives - indefinite pronoun)

11. The choice of gender is also made in the verbal group.
12. When it is not "null" it is translated by yeh, which is also a translation-equivalent of this.
13. The unstressed there which operates at S (in clause structure) is not the same as there which operates at A (in clause structure). They are different items. In Hindi vehā is a translation-equivalent of the adverb there.
14. The sentence is -

/// It was a page-boy in the end who released him with the news that a dress-maker awaited Mrs. Van Hopper in the suite ///

(EN-20)

/// Īt mē ek chokye ne aker unhē us sthiti se ubara /// srimeti: hewper ke pas aker veh bola, "apke kəmre mē derji: apka itzar kər rehā hey" ///

(HN-9)

(At last a page-boy relieved him. Coming near to Mrs. Hopper he said, "a dress-maker is awaiting for you in your suite.")

Footnotes - Chapter 5

1. There are no instances in the text of the rare occurrence of an adverbial group at S or C.
2. It can therefore be said that  
adverbial groups = prep. phrases + adv. phrases  
adv. phrases = adverbial groups - prep. phrases  
prep. phrases = adverbial groups - adv. phrases
3. There is a certain parallelism between Predicator and Complement in clauses on the one hand and head and completive in prepositional phrases on the other. "The term completive is used to distinguish what follows a preposition from what follows a predicator; the symbol c is retained to point to the similarities between these two structures at the different ranks."  
(Sinclair, J. McH.: "Grammar" p.82)
4. This list is taken from the text and is not meant to be an exhaustive list but may perhaps be regarded as a fairly representative one.
5. p.232.
6. These names were suggested to me by Mr. D. Macaulay. They entail references to head, which will be discussed later.
7. Though the usual sequence is mh there may be instances of h preceding m.

mh    kitabõ ke bina  
      (books without)  
hm    bina kitabõ ke  
      (without books)  
mh    mez ke uper  
      (the table on)  
hm    uper mez ke  
      (on the table)

(The translations in brackets are word for word translations)

This possibility of h preceding m may occasionally be noticed in nominal group structure as well:

mh    apki: kripa  
      (your kindness)  
hm    kripa apki:  
      (kindness your)



But it is relatively more frequent in adverbial group structure than in nominal group structure. The structures mh and hm are not completely free variants; the latter is perhaps a marked structure. Further investigations from this point of view may justify the setting up of theme (or some such system) in the adverbial group (and also in the nominal group) to account for this distinction. At the moment, however, they are just noted here.

8. Scholberg, H.C.: "Concise grammar of the Hindi language" p.124.
9. At this point nominal-head adverbial groups and adverb-head adverbial groups in Hindi may be taken as corresponding to prepositional phrases and adverbial phrases in English respectively. The point will be discussed and elaborated later.
10. Incidentally, this causes a common error by the Hindi speaking people learning English. Since the same postposition se is used in Hindi they find it very difficult to use the three prepositions from, for and since correctly.
11. mh, hq and mhq can be separated but since their numbers are rather small it is not worth while separating them.

Footnotes - Chapter 6

1. Sinclair, J. McH. op.cit. p.70.
2. that is, a clause in multiple phase. Clauses in multiple phase may contain non-finite verbal groups only.  
For instance,  
    ... wanting to go  
    ... expecting him to smile ...
3. Lexical items like beat, eat, take
4. For instance,  
    ... the State can never act ... (EP-13)
5. Halliday, M.A.K.: "Intonation in English Grammar", T.P.S., 1963. p.156
6. This account of tense as presented here is a very simplified version of the traditional treatment of tense. The traditional treatment is usually regarded as not very satisfactory. The difficulty in a description of tense arises mainly because of its reference to time. Palmer abandons the future tense altogether.  
    "...English does not handle present, past and future as a trio in the category of tense, we shall not be referring to future tense at all in spite of having past and present tenses." ("A Linguistic Study of the English Verb," p.2.)  
    Sinclair recognizes two tenses with terms "past" and "neutral" for Tense (1) and "future" and "neutral" for Tense (2). (op.cit. p.77). In the present study, however, we do not go into great details at this point and so tense in its traditional form (with terms "past" "present" and "future") has been followed and made use of in the comparative part of this chapter (6.3.7.).
7. Of all the three types of non-finite verbal groups, participials alone have restrictions of "number" and "gender". (See 6.2.2.7. and 6.2.2.8.)

Singular	hua
Plural	hue
Masculine	hua
Feminine	hui
8. Imperative verbal groups do not inflect for "number", "person" and "gender".

9. In certain dialects of Hindi there are three types of imperative verbal groups corresponding to these three distinctions:

lower	jai <u>ye</u>	} (go)
equal	ja <u>o</u>	
higher	ja	

But this may not be taken as a feature of standard Hindi and does not occur in the text.

10. Sometimes the co-text or the surrounding text might give some clue to this relation - as, for instance, the use of please. But the use of please is not necessarily an indication of this relation.
11. It may be mentioned at this point that in HN Mr. de Winter always uses the non-honorific pronoun tum (you) while speaking to the nameless heroine while she always uses the honorific pronoun ap (you) while speaking to Mr. de Winter.
12. as, for instance,
- vestuteh svetētrta tetha vidhi ke medhye ek purn  
semta hey  
(There is a complete identification between liberty  
and law.)
- ko; kisi; ka sath kherid sēkta hey  
(One can/could buy companionship)
13. For characteristics of modals see "A Linguistic Study of the English Verb" by F.R. Palmer. pp. 19-27.

1. The formal comparison implies both grammatical and lexical but in the context of the present study it should be taken as implying grammatical comparison only.
2. There is, of course, an axis of phonological comparison but we are not concerned with this here.
3. Schloz, K.W.Z.: " ... a complete transcript of the thought and spirit". ("The art of Translation").  
Postgate, J.B.: "... the prime merit of a translation proper is Faithfulness ... The Faithful Translator will give the letter where possible, but in any case the spirit". ("Translation and Translations", pp. 3 and 11).
4. For instance,  

I'm told → mujhe keha gaya hey  
 it can be done → yeh kiya ja sakta hey  
 As said in 6.2.2.4. the passive verbal group in Hindi is marked by the presence of ja (or any of its forms, underlined in the examples above.
5. The system of "Theme" in English accounts for the possible variations from the unmarked structure but two systems "Theme" and "Emphasis" have been considered necessary in Hindi. (See 3.1.2.2. and 3.2.2.5.). In a way "Theme" in "English" corresponds to both "Theme" and "Emphasis" in Hindi.
6. There are a few cases of variations in nominal group structure as well but they are very rare.
7. For instance
 

without him →	{	unke bina	mh
	{	bina unke	hm
on the table →	{	mez ke uper	mh
	{	uper mez ke	hm
8. Unless discontinuous and relative. For instance,  

the man whom I spoke to
9. Gleason, H.A.: "Rhetorical questions do not ask for information ..." ("Linguistics and English Grammar", p.330).
10. This feature cannot be taken as a feature of literary register in general: for instance, a piece of literary criticism, in terms of this feature, will be closer to a political text than to a novel.



11. See 6.3.2.
12. It may be mentioned that complexity increases more due to rankshifts in depth than due to the number of rankshifts.
13. Nida maintains that "almost all good translations tend to be appreciably longer than their originals". ("Toward a Science of Translating", p.131.) Both HN and HP show this tendency though in different degrees.
14. The following sentence, often quoted for various purposes, may be taken as a typical instance of such complexity:

This is the dog that worried the cat that killed  
the rat that ate the malt that lay in the house  
that Jack built.

This sentence of course is extremely complex. Its translation as one sentence, even if possible, would not sound like a "genuine" Hindi sentence. Sentences are not always so complex but the problem of translation in such cases remains, in different degrees, the same.
15. This is not to be confused with an adaptation of several sentences (or paragraphs or even pages) into one sentence.
16. See 1.5.
17. Firth, J.R.: "More barriers would have been removed if the linguistic analysis at the grammatical, collocational, and lexical levels could have been systematic in both languages and keyed to the translation". ("Linguistic Analysis and Translation", p.137). Developing Firth's ideas it may be suggested that it would be unrealistic to ignore the specific needs of a purpose for which a description is to be used. Translation is one such purpose which makes use of descriptions.
18. These names were suggested by Professor J. McH. Sinclair.
19. It may be mentioned that the direction of translation is important. If the direction of translation is from English to Hindi, as is in the present study, categories exclusive to Hindi like "aspect" (at the clause rank) may at this point be ignored. But if the direction is from Hindi to English we need to investigate what "effects", if any, are due to such categories.
20. The choice between "singular" and "plural" is also made in the verbal group. See 6.2.2.7.

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